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## STUDIES IN OLD ENGLISH

BY


CAMPBELL
COLLECTION

## PREFATORY NO'TE.

The following essays make no claim to supply the long-felt want of a grammar of Sweet's Oldest English Texts. They are concerned with the investigation of certain problems in Old English phonology, with a view to ascertaining the distinctive characteristics of the Old English dialects and the chronological sequence of the sound-changes which marked the early history of the language.

It ought to be explained that these essays were completed in April of last year, several months before I was able to see the third edition of Sievers' Angelsächsische Grammatik. Consequently the references are to the second edition (Cook's Translation) throughout. I have called attention, however, in the footnotes to many of the changes introduced in the third edition, and I hope that I have not passed over anything of importance bearing on the problems here discussed. It will be found that several of the theories, against which I have contended in the earlier chapters of this paper, have been in part modified or withdrawn in the third edition; in one or two cases, indeed, the new explanation is practically identical with that which I have proposed. After some hesitation I decided to let my work remain in its original form, because Sievers' book, while stating conclusions, does not profess to give a detailed account of the processes by which these conclusions have been attained.

A word of apology is needed in regard to the nomenclature employed in the designation of the hypothetical texts discussed on p. 96 ff . This might certainly have been improved, but unfortunately it was brought to my notice too late to admit of any alteration being made.

I cannot let this opportunity pass by without testifying to the value of the services rendered to the cause of English Philology by the publication of The Oldest English Texts. Without that work any such investigation as the present would of course have been impossible; the labours of the investigator also have been materially lightened by the accuracy and the very convenient arrangement of the glossary.

In conclusion my thanks are due to the Cambridge Philological Society for allowing this paper to be published in.their Transactions, and especially to the President, Prof. Ridgeway, for the kindly interest he bas throughout taken in the work. Above all I have to thank Prof. Skeat, who has gone through both the manuscript and the proofs, and to whom I am indebted for many valuable suggestions.

H. M. CHADWICK.

Clare College,
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Note. The references in Bede are to Plummer's Baedae Opera Historica. It is to be observed that $\mathrm{B}=$ Cotton Tiberius A xiv, C = Cotton Tiberius C ir. "The Alphabet" refers to the names of the Runic letters given in Cod. Sal. 140 (quoted from Wimmer, die Runenschrift ${ }^{2}$, p. 85). The Northumbrian Runic inscriptions are quoted from Vietor, die northumbrischen Runensteine. In every other case the reference is to Sweet's Oldest English Texts.

West Saxon forms are usually quoted from Cosijn's Altwestsüchsische Grammatik. It should be observed that $\mathrm{C}=$ the Cottonian MS., $\mathrm{H}=$ the Hatton MS. of the Cura Pastoralis (C.P.).

The grammars contained in Braune's Sammlung kurzer Grammatiken germanischer Dialekte are quoted under the names of their respective authors. The same plan has been occasionally adopted in the case of grammatical treatises which deal with special dialects or texts: thus Zeuner = Zeuner's Sprache des kentischen Psalters, Lindelöf=Lindelöf's Sprache des Rituals von Durham.

Amongst other abbreviations the following may be noted:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { O.E. }=\text { Old English. } \\
& \text { O.H.G. }=\text { Old High German. } \\
& \text { M.L.G. }=\text { Middle Low German. }
\end{aligned}
$$

O.Sax. = Old Saxon.
O.E. Fris. $=$ Old East Frisian.
O.N. $=$ Old Norse.

Urn. $=$ Urnordisch (the language of the earliest Scandinavian inscriptions).
E.S. = Englische Studien.
P.B B. $=$ Paul-Braunes Beiträge .
P.G. = Paul's Grundriss der germanischen Philologie.
O.E.T. $=$ Sweet's Oldest English Texts.
H.E.S. = Sweet's History of English Sounds.

## CORRIGENDA.

p. 47 f . It is more probable that the absence of umlaut in Ps. oteawan is only apparent. -ēawan may represent an earlier ${ }^{*} \bar{x}^{3}$ wan (cf. Cp. meau $<{ }^{*} m \bar{æ}^{2} w$-), and may therefore be identical with W.Sax. -iewan. If so, this word furnishes important evidence for the former existence of the sound $\bar{x}^{3}$ in the dialect of the Psalter.
p. 140 ff . In the preparation of these sections I unfortunately overlooked Sievers' article on the same subject in P.B.B. xi. (p. 542 ff .). I therefore take this opportunity of calling the reader's attention to it. It will be seen that Ep. 179 and 504 are to be added to the examples of $b=$ Germ. $b$, and $f=$ Germ. $f$ respectively.

The page references in this paper are to the bracketed figures in the headlines.

## 1. Introduction.

The oldest English texts exhibit various dialectical peculiarities. In the case of certain (especially Northumbrian and Kentish) texts the external evidence is conclusive as to the locality in which they were composed. The varieties of the English language which they present may therefore be known as the Northumbrian dialect, the Kentish dialect etc. In the case of several important texts however, such as the Vespasian Psalter and the Epinal, Erfurt and Corpus Glossaries, conclusive external evidence is wanting. The dialect of such texts can only be determined by comparing their linguistic characteristics with those of texts whose place of origin is known. When this criterion also is wanting it is preferable to use such terms as "the dialect of the Psalter," " the dialect of the Epinal Glossary " etc.

In tracing the historical development of English sounds I have made more use of the Psalter and the early Northumbrian texts than of the Glossaries, because the evidence of the latter is of a very complicated character, modernised or semi-modernised forms often appearing side by side with others of a much more archaic character. This inconsistency is doubtless due to the influence of older texts, the forms of which have sometimes been faithfully copied by the scribe but more frequently have been brought either partly or wholly into conformity with the orthographical usage of his day.

In the representation of English sounds I have found it necessary to introduce several innovations. In particular
it is absolutely necessary for a clear understanding of Old English phonology to distinguish between the various etymological values of the $\alpha$-sounds. For this purpose I have used the signs $\omega^{1}, w^{2}, \omega^{3}, w^{4}, \omega^{5}, \bar{\omega}^{1}, \bar{\omega}^{2}, \bar{\omega}^{3}, \bar{\omega}^{4}$. Their values are as follows:-
$\omega^{1}$ denotes the sound in W. Sax., North. dwg etc. (for its origin cf. p. 61 ff.).
$e^{2}$ denotes the sound arising from $a$ by $i$-umlaut, e.g. Ps. aeldu.
$\omega^{3}$ denotes the sound arising from wa by $i$-umlaut, e.g. Ps. hlahar.
$e^{4}$ denotes the sound arising from wa by "palatal umlaut," e.g. Ps. -saeh.
( $e^{5}$ denotes the sound arising from $\&$ by $i$-umlaut, e.g. Ep. aenid.
$\bar{w}^{1}$ denotes the sound corresponding to Goth. e-, O.H.G. $-\bar{a}$ - under normal conditions, e.g. W. Sax. $d \bar{w} d . \dagger$
$\bar{w}^{2}$ denotes the sound arising from $\bar{a}(<$ Germ. ai) by $i$-umlaut, e.g. $d \bar{a} l$.
$\bar{e}^{3}$ denotes the sound arising from $\bar{e} a$ by $i$-umlaut, e.g. North. naed.
$\bar{e}^{4}$ denotes the sound arising from $\bar{e} a$ by "palatal umlaut," e.g. Ep. buecon.

It is to be observed that the distinction is purely etymological, not phonetic. The phonetic value of $-c e-(-a e-,-\ell-)$ in its various uses in literary times is a subject which requires further investigation. The classification given above however is based on differences which existed in pre-literary times. The necessity of such a classification is shown by the following considerations: the letters -ae- ( $-\omega-,-\ell-)$ are used-apart from exceptional cases--in West Saxon texts to denote only $\varepsilon^{1}, \bar{w}^{1}, \bar{w}^{2}$; in the Psalter $\omega^{2}, \omega^{3}, e^{4}, \bar{\omega}^{2}$; in Northumbrian texts $e^{1}, e^{2}, u^{3}, w^{4}, \bar{e}^{2} ;-a e-\left(-e^{-},-\ell-\right)$ for $w^{5}$, $\bar{w}^{4}$ is frequent only in the glossaries, while for $\bar{a}^{3}$ it occurs only in the earliest Northumbrian texts.

In conformity with the use of $e^{1}, \omega^{2}$ etc. to denote the

[^0]various etymological values of $c$, , I have employed $e^{2}$ to denote the sound arising from $\mathscr{c}^{1}$ by $i$-umlaut $\dagger$. $e^{1}$ is used, where necessary, to denote the original $e$-sound, corresponding in general to O.H.G. O.N. e, Goth. $i$ (ai).

## 2. The History of the Older Diphthongs.

For information regarding the history of the older diphthongs we are dependent on the observation of the results of three sound-changes:-
i. The operation of $i$-umlaut.
ii. The operation of the change known as 'palatal umlaut $\ddagger$.'
iii. Contraction through the loss of intervocalic $-h$ -

## i. The i-umlaut of diphthongs.

In West Saxon the $i$-umlaut of $\bar{e}(<$ Germ. $a u$ ) is written $i e(i, y)$; the $i$-umlaut of ea (<Germ. a before $\chi, r, l+$ consonant) is also written $i e(i, y)$. It would seem natural therefore that there was no qualitative difference of importance between these sounds even at the time when $i$-umlaut took place. It appears from such forms as mehte, $\gamma e h$ which are especially frequent in Orosius, that at the time when palatal umlaut took place in West Saxon (i.e. probably towards the end of cent. Ix.) the first element in the eadiphthongs was $\bar{e}$, but it does not of course follow that this was the case at the time when $i$-umlaut operated.

In Northumbrian and in the Psalter there is not the same harmony in the representation of the umlauted diphthongs. We find:
$\dagger$ The sign $\varepsilon$ which is used by many writers with this value is open to the objection that it occurs in the mss. with a totally different value, namely as an equivalent of $-a c-,-\infty-$.
$\ddagger$ The term is obviously inappropriate, but since it is in general use I have retained it. 'Guttural smoothing' is equally unsuitable, since the change certainly took place before palatals as well as gutturals, e.g. before Germ. $-j$ - in Ps. frigu etc.
$e: \bar{e} a$, e.g. Ps. gelefan : geleafa.
aeh (ceh, ęh) : aeh (wh, ęh) e.g. Ps. maeht : maehte (pret.)
er : ear, e.g. Ps. ermð́ı : earm.
Corresponding to Ps. al we find ael (cel, ę), but since there is no evidence for breaking of Germ. a before $l$ in these dialects, these forms need not be discussed here (cf. p. 29 f.).

Judging from the evidence of the Psalter alone we might conclude that the regular umlaut of $\breve{e} a$ was $\breve{e}$, and that this $\breve{e}$ was perhaps a later development of a diphthong corresponding to the W. Sax. थ$e$. But in that case the absence of umlaut in maeht etc. wonld remain unexplained. The evidence of early Northumbrian shows however that in this dialect at least such was not the case. Thus against L.V. eduini, edgils $\dagger$ Bede M. has usually aeduini (B.C.N. have eduini), aedgils (IV. 25) ; against L.V.beda M. has baeda (cf. Bieda Chron. A. 734; Langob. Bauto, Baodolinus); against Ps. ned the Alphabet has naed; and L.V. possibly contains two examples, baede (1. 432) and helm-baed (l. 10). Another possible case is M. V. 19, cei beside IV. 6 ei, Loc. sg. of eu probably from Germ. *auj̄ (cf. W. Sax. iege), but the history of this word in Northumbrian is somewhat obscure, cf. p. 41. Lastly the North. cuelin = W. Sax. ceaulin of M. II. 5 (L.V. celin) may be compared, though the diphthong contained in this word is in all probability not Germ. au but one of later origin, cf. pp. 42, 45 .

It appears therefore that North. e here represents an earlier $\overline{w_{2}}\left(\bar{e}^{3}\right)$. Its history is precisely parallel to that of $\overline{\omega^{1}}$ : thus in M. we find $a e=\overline{e^{1}}$ in blaedla I. 13, raedfiidum IV. 1, sucebhardo V. 7, gae V. 2. On the other hand parallel to $\bar{e}<\bar{e}^{3}$ in edric IV. 26, eduini IV. 23, v. 24(2), (el-)ge IV. 19, and possibly estranglorum iv. 12 (see below), we find $e<\bar{w}^{1}$ in reduald II. $5,12,15$, suefredo IV. 11, elge IV. 19, uetadun v. 3, probably deda II. 16 and regularly in the second member e.g. eanfled, aelbfled, wictred, coenred, eumer. In the Alphabet

[^1]parallel to naed we find gaer. In L.V. $a e=\bar{c}^{3}$ is represented only by the uncertain baede, helmbaed (see above) and the very doubtful aestorhild (l. 20), aesturuini (l. 78) against aeostoruini (1. 153) and eosturuini (l. 191). The examples of $a e=\bar{\omega}^{1}$ are likewise rare: in the second member only in osmaer (1. 200), eadmaer (1. 157), hegaer (1. 167) and uitmer (l. 219) ; in the first syllable apparently the only cases are blaedsuith (1. 21) and blaedla (ll. 186, 203). Since bled-does not occur in L.V. and the termination -la only occurs in blaedla and etla (l. 229), it seems not unlikely that these names were unfamiliar to the scribe and that consequently he has simply copied the spelling of older documents. In the second member the possibility of shortening must be taken into account. On the other hand parallel to 7 ed -, 3 bed-, 5 beda, 1 celin, 1 scenuulf (1. 94) and 3 dremca (dremka l. 95), cf. dreamuulf 1. 114, we find 6 meg- (including 2 mei-), 2 ded-, 9 ger-, 8 uer- and frequent red-, besides several examples of less certain forms. In the second member we find 6 -mer, 4 -fled, and very frequent -red.

The history of eduini, bedu etc. throws light on the apparent absence of umlaut in Ps. maeht (North. maecti in Caedmon's Hymn). It is clear that these words must have contained a diphthong at the time when $i$-umlaut took place; otherwise the result must have been ${ }^{*} m e^{2} h t$, for -ht- did not prevent umlaut (cf. dryctin in the same Hymn). The effects of $i$-umlaut are identical in the two cases; the relationship $\bar{e}^{3}: \bar{e} a<$ earlier $\bar{e} g$ (cf. p. 26 ff.) is identical with the relationship $\omega^{3}: c_{0}$, but the latter forms (e.g. Ps. pret. maelite) have undergone palatal umlaut and consequently fallen together eventually with the forms which have undergone $i$-umlaut. se remains because there is no change of $\mathbb{C}>e$ in Northumbrian (except under certain conditions for which see p. 84 f .) ; in the dialect of the Psalter there was certainly a change of $e^{1}>e$, but this change was very early (apparently before the operation of palatal umlaut) and may consequently have taken place before $\omega^{1}$ and $\omega^{3}$ fell together.

With regard to the $i$-umlaut of Germ. a before $r+$ con-
sonant there is reason for supposing that in West Saxon at any rate the breaking is older than the umlaut; and in Northumbrian in spite of such forms as uard, barnum etc. which occur in the oldest texts, the palatalisation of the initial consonant in Ruthwell 亏 jerede shows at least that it was followed by a palatal vowel before the completion of $i$-umlaut. Evidence in favour of early breaking is likewise given by M. iaruman III. 24, 30, Iv. $3=$ Geneal. (OET. p. 167 ff .) gearomon, l. 34. How then is the $e$ of Ps. erm $\delta$ 'u, North. (L.V.) uernberct (: Langob. uuarnepertus) to be explained? If before the operation of $i$-umlaut these words contained a diphthong parallel to that in maeht, one would naturally expect this operation to produce forms such as *aerm $\delta u$, *uaern-. But in place of -ae- we find -e-. This however is not without a parallel; for corresponding to W. Sax. aern, geers (with $\left.e^{1}\right) \dagger$ we find ern, gers not only in the Psalter where the evidence would be inconclusive in consequence of the change $e^{1}>e$, but also in the Lindisfarne Gospels $\ddagger$. The $e$ is long as is shown by the frequent writing érn. These forms can only be explained, so far as I can see, on the hypothesis that the lengthening took place before the change of $\overline{e^{1}}>\bar{e}$, the development being ${ }^{*}\left(e^{1} r n\right.$
 similar lengthening in * $e^{3} r m p u$ would produce erməu (ērmpu), for as has already been shown $\bar{\epsilon}^{3}$ also underwent the change to $\bar{e}$. We have indeed no examples of -aer- in the early North. texts, but this is not strange considering the rareness of forms with eer-. M. offers only one case, merci, though this is frequent, while even in L.V. we find only 8 examples of uern- and one of herding (l. 333). The glossaries however which closely resemble Northumbrian in their treatment of the $i$-umlaut of diphthongs, afford several examples of $a e(r)=a^{3}(r)$, cf. p. 122 f. The form uucerenberht, Gen. l. 40, probably does not belong here but is rather with L.V.

[^2]uerenhaeth (1. 334), uerenfrith (1. 365) to be compared with Langob. Warimbertus and contains probably the stem of Tacitus' Varini.

The operation of $i$-umlaut therefore in the three classes of diphthongs has been precisely similar. The $i$-umlaut of Germ. $a u$ was originally $\bar{m}^{3}$, the $i$-umlaut of Germ. a before $\chi$ and before $r+$ consonant was $e^{3}$; subsequently lengthening took place before $r+$ consonant and $\vec{a}^{3}$ together with $\bar{a}^{1}$ underwent a change to $\bar{e}$.

## ii. Palatal umlaut.

In the Psalter palatal umlaut appears withont exception under the following conditions:-
(i) in all long diphthongs before immediately following $c, g, h$.
(ii) in all short diphthongs before immediately following $h$.
(iii) in all short diphthongs before $r c, r g$ and before $r h$ when $h$ is preserved.

There is some irregularity in its occurrence in the case of a short diphthong immediately followed by $g, c$ :
(a) before $-g$ - the number of exceptions is small (Zeuner p. 34), viz. steogun (3), weogum (1), weagas (3). Possibly these forms are due to a later operation of $u$ - and $a$-umlaut which took in part a different form. Palatal umlaut of the diphthong arising from Germ. $a$ is universal, though degas etc. occur 6 times (perhaps on the analogy of the singular) and $a$ is preserved in dagum, magun, plagiað (once each). In asagas the preservation of $a$ is regular, cf. hafas, hafað.
( $\beta$ ) before -c- palatal umlaut of eo- is rare (Zeuner p. 35), spreocan etc. being the usual forms. On the other hand -ea- only occurs once (hreacan, 113. 7), palatal umlaut usually taking place ; -e- is found in wreca (3), $-a$ - in hracan (1), d’raca (4).

It would seem from ðweoran (2), ðweoru (2) beside ðuerh
that palatal umlaut did not take place in this dialect before antevocalic -rh-. The retention of $-u$ in N. sg. f. סweoru makes it probable that - $h$ - disappeared here very early and without lengthening the preceding vowel. On the other hand palatal umlaut must have taken place before the loss of $-h$ - in the group -lh-, as is shown by Conj. fele, Ind. 3 sg . filer. Here also there can have been no vowel-lengthening; these forms must be read as $f$ elle, fulleð as appears from the new preterite pl. felun ( $=f$ èlun). The difficult -ea- of the inf. -fealan (72.28) is best explained as an example of late $a$-umlaut, parallel perhaps to that suggested in the case of weagas above.

Lastly the word westem deserves mention. The Lindisfarne forms wcestm, wcestem, wcestim etc. (frequent and consistently written with $-(x-)$ show that it contains $\breve{\omega^{1}} .-\chi$ must therefore have been lost here before the operation of breaking.

The results of palatal umlaut in the dialect of the Psalter may be stated briefly thus: that in place of ea, $\bar{e} a$ stand $\mathscr{e}(a e, \varepsilon), \bar{e}$; in place of $e_{o}(i o), \bar{e}_{O}(i o)$ stand $e$ and $i, \bar{e}$ and $\bar{\imath}$ respectively. But in place of $\bar{e}: \bar{e} a$ we have in one case $\alpha$, viz. ð ch Әe (2), ðaeh ðe (1), daeh ðe (1).

In early Northumbrian palatal umlaut is complete in the following texts : viz. all the inscriptions except Kirkheaton, the Alphabet, Caedmon's Hymn, Bede's Death-song, the Leiden Riddle and Liber Vitae. In the Northumbrian MSS. (M. and B.) of Bede's History it is complete except before -rc- in the following cases :-earconberct III. 8 (thrice, C. has ercon- once and eorcon- once, B. has ercon- once), IV. 19 (ercon- C.), v. 24, but erconberct iv. 1, v. 19 in agreement with the other MSS. ; earcongot-ce, -am III. 8 (so also B., but C. has eorcon- in both cases), against ercongota (in agreement with the other MSS.) in the same chapter; earconuald Iv. Pr. (ercon- C.), IV. 6 (twice, C. has once ercon- and once eorcun-), against ercunuald- III. 19 (twice), erconualdo IV. 11, each time in agreement with the other MSS. The variation therefore seems to be due to Bede himself. It is noticeable that the failure of palatal umlaut is confined to the names of
three persons none of whom were Northumbrians, viz. Earconberct king of Kent, Earcongotce his daughter, and Earconuald bishop of the East Saxons. Names with earconmay not have been familiar to a Northumbrian ; the only other example of the word is ercinuald L.V. l. 304. -ea-, -eo- never occur before -rg-, -rh-, -berct -bergae etc. being the forms exclusively in use. In contrast apparently to the dialect of the Psalter, palatal umlaut seems from firum in Caedmon's Hymn to have taken place in Northumbrian also before antevocalic -rh-. In regard to the treatment of -lhNorthumbrian agrees with the Psalter, as appears from the word selces (twice in M. etc., viz. Iv. 13, v. 18) $\dagger$.

The effects of palatal umlaut in Northumbrian are in general the same as in the Psalter. It is to be observed however that in the case of the short diphthongs its sphere of operation was more limited, since labial umlaut of Germ. a did not take place in Northumbrian before the period of palatal umlaut. Hence forms like Alph. lagu, M. hagustaldensis (III. 2), hacanos (IV. 23).

Among the phenomena of palatal umlaut in Northumbrian and in the dialect of the Psalter there are two points which deserve special attention :

1. $\ddagger$ The palatal umlaut of the Germ. diphthong $i u$ and of the new diphthong arising by breaking from Germ. $i$. Sievers (P.B.B. xviri. 411 ff .) has shown that in the earliest texts the Germ. diphthongs $e u$ and $i u$ as also the new diphthongs arising from Germ. $e$ and $i$ are to a great extent kept distinct. In the early Northumbrian MSS. of Bede and in Liber Vitae there are indeed no exceptions. Now seeing that palatal umlaut is, with the exception of the few examples of earcon- mentioned above, already complete in these texts, we should naturally expect that its effect on the $i$-diphthongs would differ from its effect on the $e$-diphthongs. As a matter of fact the early Northumbrian texts offer very
[^3]little evidence either for or against this hypothesis, but the evidence of late Northumbrian, though not extensive, agrees with it, and the same is true of the Psalter. Thus Ps. wircar etc. : werc, birhtu etc.: berht, 3 sg. Ind. file厄 beside Conj. fele (cf. B.D.S. 3 sg. Ind. uuiurthit beside Conj. uueorth(a)e), Alph. ilcs, cf. Run. eolhxsecg and Ep. 781 ilugsegg, M. uictuari, uictgilsi I. 15̆, uictred, uictberct etc. M. L.V.†, Ps. inlihtan etc. : leht, Ps. smicar : smec $\ddagger$; especially noticeable are Ps. 3 sg. Ind. atið (9. 30) beside Impv. geteh (31.9), and Lind. 3 sg. Ind. fliið (Jn. x. 12, 13) beside Ps. Conj. pl. flen (67. 2), which show that palatal umlaut worked before the loss of intervocalic $-h$-. In some cases the $i$ - and $e$ - stems seem to have been confused; thus Ps. ptcple ligende (17. 46) beside legende ; so also we have 1 sg. fign (54.7) beside legu (88. 36), both of which can not be right ; Cp. scriopu (1828) tells in favour of the $i$ - form though the contrary is the more usual opinion. $i$ is also found as the result of palatal umlaut from the diphthong $\bar{\imath} u$ arising through contraction of $i$ and Germ. $-a-,-\bar{o}-$ (cf. p. 56 f.), e.g. Ps. 1 sg. frigu beside 2 sg. freas etc., cf. Leid. 153, friulactum, Cp. frioleta (3 times). M. frigyd (Iv. 23), cf. L.V. friumon, friubet: these words are possibly connected with Ps. frigu etc. L.V. frehelm $(62,286)$ is rather to be connected with frea. Another possible example of $\bar{\imath}<\bar{\imath} u$ through palatal umlaut is Lind. gigo $\begin{gathered}\text {, but }\end{gathered}$ unfortunately the conditions which produce palatal diphthongisation in Northumbrian, as well as the period at which such change took place, are obscure. Clearly Ps. guguð ( iuguð, guiuð) has undergone no such diphthongisation and consequently has remained free from palatal umlaut.
2. The palatal umlaut of the Germ. diphthong au. The result in Northumbrian as in the Psalter is usually $e$, though there are not many examples in the early texts. L.V. has beguini (thrice), edilhech (1. 68), exilhech (1. 105),

[^4]perhaps herred (thrice) if this comes from *hēh-red, and possibly uillech (1. 473) which is obscure ; so also probably frehelm (11. 62, 286) : frea cf. p. $10 \dagger$; the Leiden Riddle has reh (twice), hehcraeft; becun occurs in the inscriptions of Falstone, Thornhill iII., Dewsbury and Gretabridge, and Bewcastle has probably becn though the vowel is not quite certain, cf. Vietor, p. 15 ; so also Clerm. unne3 : W. Sax. $n \bar{e} a h$ cf. p. 17 f . A possible example in M. is degsa (I. 34, v. 24) especially in view of the form daegsa in C. (v. 24). But forms with -ae-also occur: thus M. has pcegnalaech (III. 27) against -lech in the other MSS., and the (Runic) inscription of Crowle seems to have baccun. In L.V. baeglug (1. 290), baeglog (ll. 172, 208) are examples if the first member is identical with beg-in beguini; possibly however it is related to O.H.G. beiara (cf. Chron. 891 beegerum); another possible example is regnhaeg (l. 372), but this word might also be related to O.N. solkn-heggr (Noreen, Urg. Lautl. p. 160), cf. the form hega (: O.H.G. haijo) in a charter (O.E.T. 28) with Kentish characteristics. Scanty as the evidence is, it seems to show that $\bar{e}$ comes from an earlier $\bar{e}\left(\bar{c}^{4}\right)$, and so far as one can judge, the change seems to be contemporaneous with that of $\bar{e}^{1}$ and $\bar{e}^{3}$ to $\bar{e}$. The -ae- of Ps. סaeh re etc. (so also Lind. Joh compared with Leid. Rid. סeh) must be due to shortening either before or after the operation of palatal umlaut. This change of $\bar{e}^{4}>\bar{e}$ constitutes an important point of difference between Northumbrian and the dialect of the Psalter on the one hand and the dialect of the glossaries on the other (cf. p. 131 ff .).

As the sound ( $\bar{w}^{4}$ ) which arose from Germ. au by palatal umlaut seems to have fallen together with the sound ( $\bar{e}^{3}$ ) which arose from the same diphthong by $i$-umlaut, so also the result of palatal umlaut on the diphthong which arose from Germ. a before $r+$ consonant seems to have been identical with the result of $i$-umlaut on the same diphthong. Thus Ps. has erc, gesnerc, hergas, merglice parallel to erfe, etc. Examples in early Northumbrian are very rare. M. has four examples of ercun- (ercon-) beside $\dagger$ hegaer (1. 167) has probably $\bar{e}<\bar{e} o$, cf. heouald (p. 40).
seven of earcon- (cf. p. 8) and L.V. has once ercin-uald $\dagger$. On the other hand Bede's Death-song has uerigfaerae, where however the lengthening may have been prevented by svarabhakti, or possibly * cerh may have been restored on the analogy of the A.G.D. sg. *cerce, if the loss of $-h$ - preceded the lengthening. In later Northumbrian we have Lind. berg, merc, etc., but cerc. On the whole it seems probable that the Northumbrian treatment was the same as that in the dialect of the Psalter. It is noticeable that here again, as in the case of the palatal umlaut of Germ. $a u$, the glossaries usually have -ae- (cf. p. 130 ff .).

The hypothesis suggested above that $-\bar{e}$ - arising through palatal umlaut from Germ. au (as also from Germ. a before $r+$ consonant) represents an earlier $\bar{c}$ is supported by evidence of a different kind. In the early Northumbrian texts the diphthong arising from Germ. $a u$ is as elsewhere usually represented by ea. Yet there are not wanting examples with -aea-, -aeo-: thus M. has aeodbaldum II. Pref., aeodbaldo II. 7, II. 9, eanfled II. 9, aeanfled III 24 (twice); to these should possibly be added cenheri (Iv. 13), if this is a mistake for aeanheri which is preserved in the Namur MS. ; L.V. has one example, aeostoruini 1. 153. It is to be noticed that the names in Bede belonged to persons living in the seventh century. Now if, as seems probable in view of the more frequent -ea-, the spelling -aeo--aea- is an archaism in the Bede MSS. and due to copying from older documents, it must show that the names of these persons were so written by their contemporaries and therefore that the first element in the diphthong ea- was at no very distant period a real $c$ - sound. In the other cases of palatal umlaut its character seems to have been the monophthongising of a diphthong in such a way that the first element alone survived; thus $e<e_{o}$ (Ps. berht), $\bar{e}<\bar{e} o$ (Ps. leht), $i<i o$, $i u$ (Ps. birhtu), $\bar{\imath}<\bar{\imath} 0, \bar{\imath} u$ (Ps. -lihtan) ; the natural result therefore of palatal umlaut upon the diphthong $\bar{e} a(\bar{w} O)$ would be $\bar{\alpha}$, for the existence of which evidence has been given above.

[^5]iii. The loss of intervocalic -h-.

This is not of course the only source of contraction, but it is necessary to keep the various cases of contraction quite distinct as they belong to entirely different periods. Thus in free $_{0}$, if this comes from an earlier *frija-, the contraction must have taken place before the loss of final $-a$. On the other hand Germ. $-\chi$ - remained until after the loss of final $-u$, as is shown by wlōh, earh, furh, sulh, etc. The loss of intervocalic $-h$ - $(\chi)$ took place indeed comparatively late, as is shown by its frequent retention in the glossaries. It was preceded by palatal umlaut in Northumbrian, and in the dialect of the Psalter, as has already been shown (p.10), and must therefore be considerably later than the operation of $i$-umlaut. Hence it is inadmissible to say that W. Sax. nēar comes directly from * $n \bar{a} h o r$ (with its first syllable still in pre-English form). The change $\bar{a}>\bar{e}$ preceded $i$-umlaut, as is shown by W. Sax. cyse (for ciese), and the subsequent change $\bar{\infty}>\bar{e}$ had already taken place in the dialect of the Psalter when intervocalic $-h$ - was lost, as is shown by Ps. -neolaecan (neo- 8, nio- 5, nia- 1), neoweste, etc. < * nēhu-. One may compare the forms nior in the glosses belonging to Bede C. (O.E.T., p. 180 ff .) and neor in a Kentish charter of 831 (O.E.T. No. 38). Another example is North. D. sg. eomce, eomae (Falstone): W. Sax. ēam, presupposing an earlier * $\overline{\text { h hom-; }}$ for the change $\bar{a}>0$ in the second syllable such forms as bēot, eofot (Cp. eobotum) may be compared (cf. Sievers § 43, note 4).

Since uncontracted forms rarely and indeed outside the glossaries scarcely ever occur, these have usually to be inferred from a comparison with the forms of other Germanic languages. Yet about certain contractions there can hardly be any doubt; thus $\bar{o}, \bar{a}$ simply absorb a following vowel : e.g. $\bar{o}+a, h \bar{o} n<{ }^{*} h \bar{o} h a n ; \bar{o}+w$, p $\bar{o}$ (cf. Ep. thohae); $\bar{a}+a, r \bar{a}$ (cf. Cp. raha); $\bar{a}+a, t \bar{a}$ (cf. Cp. tahae). There can also be no serious doubt that the same was the case with $\bar{e} o$ in West Saxon, e.g. $\bar{e} o+a$, flēon < ${ }^{*}$ flèohan; $\bar{e} o+\infty$, flèo (Opt.)
< *fēohce. But in the dialect of the Psalter palatal umlaut had already taken place, hence $\bar{e}+\varkappa$, flen $<$ *fēhhen. So also no doubt with $\bar{e} a$, e.g. $\bar{e} a+a, h \bar{e} a$ (N. sg. masc.) < *he$a h a$, $\bar{e} a+\infty, h \bar{e} a(N$. sg. fem.) < *hēahce. So also W. Sax. ēam beside North. D. sg. eomce probably < *éahom-, *ēhom- (cf. p. 13). In the Psalter the A.G.D. sg. hean may come from *hēhan, but some of the forms, e.g. D. sg. masc. heam ( 135,12 ), seem to have been affected by analogy.

The contraction of Germ. $e, a, \bar{\imath}$ with a following vowel gives more remarkable results. Contraction of Germ. -ewith -a-gives $\bar{e} o$ in the W. Sax. Inf. sēon, contraction of $e$ with $c e$ gives $\bar{e} o$ in the W. Sax. Opt. sēo; the corresponding forms of the Psalter are Inf. sean, sian,$\dagger$ Opt. se. The diphthong in the West Saxon forms is difficult. In the Infinitive according to Sievers (§ 113, cf. § 45, 4) we are to suppose -on (with Idg. -o-) not -an to have been the form in existence before contraction took place $\ddagger$; hence - $\bar{e} o$ - (sēon <*sehon) is the natural result of the contraction of $e+o$. This preservation of Idg. -o- seems to me exceedingly doubtful, not only on account of the -ea- of the Psalter but also from the fact that Gothic, the Urnordisch inscriptions and the early Finnish loan-words uniformly show - $a$ - for Idg. -oin unaccented as well as in accented syllables. Apart from this the only reputed case of the preservation of Idg. -o- is frēo, but this in reality represents an earlier * friu which may come just as well from ${ }^{*}$ frija- as from ${ }^{*}$ frijo- (cf. p. 56 ff .). That the Infinitive contained at one time a labial vowel is indeed shown by the labial umlaut§ in certain Psalter forms, e.g. fearan, but it is far more likely that a change of $a>\theta$ had taken place here, as in stem syllables, in consequence of the following nasal. The difference between W. Sax. sēon and Ps. sean (sian) might then be explained as follows : in West Saxon the vowel of the second syllable was still labial

[^6](Q) when contraction took place, but in the dialect of the Psalter (as also in the other dialects) the labialisation was already lost. But there are two difficulties in the way of this explanation: (i.) it renders Sievers' explanation of hēan ( $(408,4)$ impossible, since in that case *hiehon must be substituted for *hīehan, but *hiée(h)on would produce *hēon; the same difficulty will of course remain if *hīehon contains Idg. -0-; yet Sievers' explanation of hēan can scarcely be wrong : (ii.) $-\bar{e} 0$ - appears also where there is no nasal, e.g. pret. W. Sax. tēode beside North. tiadoe (Caedmon's Hymn), N. sg. twēo beside North. (Lind.) tuia, Inf. twēogean beside Lind. pret. tuiade $\dagger$. In face of these difficulties Sievers' explanation of W.Sax. sēon can not be regarded as satisfactory. In the Conjunctive (sēo beside Ps. se) also the diphthong $-\bar{e} 0$ - requires explanation ; it does not stand quite alone, for N. sg. sēo, G. sg. fēos appear to have $\bar{e} o$ through contraction of $e+c$. Yet the difference between the West Saxon forms and those of the Psalter certainly deserves consideration.

Contraction of Germ. -a- with $-a-$ ( $-o-$ according to Sievers § 111) gives - $\bar{e} a-$ in W. Sax. Inf. stēan. The hypothetical *slahon is of course open to the same objections as *sehon; yet it is scarcely credible that -ea- should result from contraction of $a+a$. The Iufinitive slēan does not occur in the Psalter, but its existence in that dialect may be inferred from the Ind. pl. sleað $(61,4) \ddagger . \quad$ But *slahon *sehan can not have been contemporaneous forms in the same dialect. In the Conjunctive we have W. Sax. slēa against Ps. -sle (9, 29). According to Sievers the West

+ Cp. tuigendi (cf. Lind. Conj. getuiga) can scarcely be directly compared with these forms (cf. p. 46).
$\ddagger$ An examination of the Ind. pl. forms of sean makes it clear that at the time when contraction took place the ending was already -ab (not -öp or $-q$ p) in the dialect of the Psalter. Against 2 gefioð and 2 gesioð we have 13 gefiað, 1 gefeað, 12 gesiað and 1 geseað. The origin of the forms with -io- is not difficult to trace. It is due in all probability to biox, where the contraction is of much older date (cf. p. 57). biað (4) on the other hand is due perhaps to -sia'd etc. The influence of this verb is shown also by the 1 sg . fleom $(138,7)$, pl. fleor $(103,7)$, and it is to be observed that sean and *flean would regularly fall together throughout the Indicative and Conjunctive Present. (Cf. Lind. 1 sg. -seom.)

Saxon forms have - $\bar{e} a$ - through the analogy of the Indicative (and Infinitive). In the Ind. 1 sg. slēe would no doubt be regular, but it is worth observing that the ending $-u$ only occurs once (viz. Hatt. p. 397) in early West Saxon texts.

Contraction of Germ. $-\bar{\imath}$ - with $-a$ - ( -0 - Sievers) gives $\bar{e} o$ in W. Sax. wrēon, etc., which offer the same difficulties as sēon. The Psalter has wrean $(103,9)$ where -ea- probably has the same value as in sean, sian (cf. p. $14 n$ ). The Conj. wrēo in West Saxon is to be compared with sēo, and presents the same difficulties.

It appears therefore that setting aside the difficulties connected with the contraction of $e+$ following vowel in other classes of words, the explanation of the three types of verbs (1) sēon,(2) slēan, (3) wrēon propounded by Sievers is open to two serious objections: (i.) it necessitates our assuming that in the Infinitive (as also in the Indic. Pres. 3 pl.) the West Saxon dialect preserved a labial vowel (whether Idg. -0 - or a later development of Germ. $-a-$ ) against $-a$ - in the dialect of the Psalter etc., (ii.) it involves also that the Conjunctive Present in slèan and probably also in the other verbs is non-original and based mainly on the forms which show these peculiarities of contraction.

This however by no means exhausts the difficulties presented by these verbs on Sievers' hypothesis. Even in the earliest West Saxon texts the inflexion of wrèon etc. has fallen together entirely with that of verbs like flèon (with Germ. -eu-) in the Present system, and the confusion has spread from thence to the preterite (cf. Cosijn, § 80). Again, the 2,3 sg. siehst, sieh $ð$, sliehst, slieh $\delta$ have, like many other verbs with a short syllable, syncopated the $-i$ - on the analogy of those verbs which have a long syllable. Before the syncope took place we must on Sievers' hypothesis suppose the forms in existence to have been *sihij, *sle ${ }^{2} h i$. But after the syncope one would expect only to find sihp, slehp, for we have no evidence to show that breaking before $-h$ - was operative after the period of $i$-umlaut. W. Sax. twelf is a somewhat parallel case. It is also curious that if this later breaking took place the result should be the same in both cases. If
again the forms are due to analogy this can only spring from the Imperative seoh, sleah and the umlaut must be functional; but the suggestion is hardly worth serious consideration. Moreover we are confronted by a somewhat similar difficulty in the W. Sax. G.D. sg. ie. By Sievers' theory this can only be explained as a new and late formation from the N.A. sg. $\bar{e} a$ on the analogy of burg: byrg etc.

There is one more case of contraction which requires consideration here viz. nēar. As has been above pointed out (p. 13) Sievers can not be right in tracing nēar direct to * $n \bar{a} h o r$, since $-\bar{\alpha}$ - did not remain until so late a period. There is however no phonetic difficulty in referring nēar to ${ }^{*}$ nc्ehor $\dagger$. Now according to Sievers ( $\S 57$ d.) the vocalism of neah is due to the analogy of near. Presumably then the regular form would be $n \bar{e} h \ddagger$. This is not of course disproved by nealcecan, for Ps. nehlaecan is certainly a new form due to the influence of neh, the regular forms being -niolaecan etc. (cf. p. 13). But the superlative niehsta presents a serious difficulty, for it is hardly credible that this is a new and late formation from the comparatively modern nēah with functional umlaut on the analogy of hīehsta : hēah etc., especially as the older comparative $n \bar{e} a r, n \bar{e} a(r) r a$ is umlautless; $n \bar{y} r, n \bar{y} r a$ do not occur in the early texts. But above ail it seems arbitrary to separate W. Sax. néah : nēar : nīehsta from O.H.G. $n \bar{a} h(o): n \bar{a} h o r: n \bar{a} h i s t o$. Ps. nest certainly represents an earlier *nēhist||.
† In the new edition (Gr. ${ }^{3}$ § 57. 2. d, §82) Sievers has abandoned this explanation and given that which I have put forward below. (Cf. also Cosiju § 61.)
$\ddagger$ Paul (P.B.B. vi. 91) suggests that either neah is a contamination of neh and nea (: G. nehwa), or the vowel had been shortened and subsequently undergone breaking.
|| The Frisian evidence on this point would be invaluable if the history of the forms was clear. There can not be much doubt that O.E. Fris. (superl.) nēst is identical with Ps. nest. One is also tempted to equate the comparative niar with the form nior in the glosses of Bede C. (W. Sax. near), but then E. Fris. n̄̄ and (superl.) nāst remain unexplained. * $n \bar{e} h o r$ (whence niar) may quite well owe its vocalism to the influence of O.E. Fris. nēi, W. Fris. nei (perhaps $<{ }^{*} n \bar{e} h w i$ ), while on the other hand no analogical influence seems to be possible in $n \bar{a}, n \bar{a} s t$. If these forms come from ${ }^{*} n \bar{a} h u$,

The only alternative is to take nēah as a regular form with breaking of Germ. $\bar{e}$ (or its later representative $\bar{a}$ or $\bar{e}^{1}$ ) before $\chi$. According to Sievers ( $\$ 82$ ff.) breaking takes place only in the case of short vowels, but the reason for this restriction is not clear. Breaking is usually attributed to the fact that the vowel was not homorganic with - $\chi$ - , and if this is so, it would naturally depend not on the quantity but solely on the quality of the vowel. But the question can of course only be decided by the evidence, and in the case of Germ. - $\bar{e} \chi$ - we have no other examples. In the case of - $\bar{\imath} \chi$ - however we have a probable example in W. Sax. leoht. According to Sievers (§ 125) shortening took place before -ht-. Granting that this is so-and the evidence does not seem to be absolutely conclusive-it by no means follows that this shortening took place before the operation of breaking. Such a supposition seems unlikely on account of ahte (pret.) cht (substv.) etc. If shortening had taken place in these words subsequent to the monophthongisation of Germ. ai but before the period of breaking, we should have had in West Saxon *eahte, *ieht; if on the other hand the shortening had taken place before the monophthongisation of Germ. $a i$, the literary forms would be equally impossible. A restoration of the long vowel from $\bar{a} g$ or *aiz etc. is hardly likely since stem-variation between the preterite and present is the rule among these verbs. Sievers' theory gains some support from Lind. leht (Mtth. 11, 30 against Compv. lihtre Mtth. 10, 15) but there may have been confusion with leht $=$ lucidus since many of their derivatives would regularly fall together (viz. whenever - $i$ - occurred in the following syllable). It is noteworthy that the only example in early Northumbrian has $-i$ - (L.V. lictuald l. 229). A parallel case is afforded by W. Sax. weofod beside Ps. wibed < * winbed where there can scarcely be any suspicion of early shortening. So also in the Genealogies (O.E.T. p. 167 ff .) which contain a medley of forms belonging to different dialects and periods, we have alourioh (1. 43) which is perhaps to be compared with L.V. aluich * $n \bar{u} h(w) \check{\bar{c} s t}$, then Germ. $\bar{e}$ before $-h$ - must here also as in English have fallen together with Germ. au.
(l. 73), the latter having undergone palatal umlaut $\dagger$. Again corresponding to W. Sax. fêol we find Cp. 1234, fil (<*ffūl̄̄cf. O.H.G. fîhala, fīla). Further examples are W. Sax. bëtweoh, betuh, betweonum (Cosijn § 68) beside Ps. betwih, betwinum. The possibility of early shortening at least in betweonum : betwinum seems to be excluded by lane: O. Sax. lehni. Here also may be mentioned the form eoh in the Runic Poem beside Alph. ih (: O.L.G. $\bar{c} c h$ cf. p. 49 n.). These examples seem to me enough to show that long vowels also were capable of breaking before Germ. $\chi$, in other words that breaking was independent of the quantity of the vowel. A similar explanation has already been suggested by Cosijn (l.c.). If this is correct the Impv. 2 sg. wrēoh etc. (Sievers, $\S 84, \mathrm{n} .1$ ) will be perfectly regular forms, while Ps. -wrih will have come from an earlier * wrīuh by palatal umlaut $\ddagger$.

In order to arrive at a solution of the difficulties which have been discussed above in regard to the results of contraction, it is necessary to bear in mind that the breaking before $-\chi$ - (-ll-) can not have been due to the same phonetic causes which produced breaking before $r$ and $l$. This is shown by the following facts: 1. breaking is produced by final $-\chi$ but not by final $-r,-l$. 2. breaking takes place before Germ. $-\chi j$ - but not before Germ. $-r j-(-z j-)$, or $-l j$-. Now the absence of all trace of breaking in W. Sax. tellan etc. \| must be due to one of two causes, either the breaking before -llwas hindered because these sounds were already palatalised at the time when the period of breaking began, or breaking must have ceased to operate when the gemination took
$\dagger$ L.V. aluych (1.165) more probably contains a stem -wix ja-.
$\ddagger$ Breaking of $-\bar{\imath}$ - is now admitted by Sievers (Gr. ${ }^{3} \S 84$. 2), but he thinks the result was $-\bar{e} O$ - (whence $-\bar{e}$ - by palatal umlaut). I can not accept this. It appears to rest entirely on the Lind. form leht (see above). Ps. -wrih etc. seem to me conclusive evidence to the contrary. (Cf. also Sievers, Gr. ${ }^{3}$ $\S 165.2$, which is hardly consistent with § 84. 2.)
$\|$ sellan must be regarded as the regular West Saxon form of Germ. *saljan-, since it alone occurs in the early texts. syllan is possibly of dialectic origin, cf. siollanne beside hiobbanne in a Mercian charter of about 840 (O.E.T. No. 48). In Lind. sealla there is probably back ( $a$-) umlaut of $e^{2}$. Umlaut of $e$ before $a$ does not occur in early Northumbrian texts, and was therefore probably late. $e^{1}$ and $e^{2}$ may then have fallen together.
place. Now in W. Sax. hliehhan, Ps. hlwhar $(51,8)$ breaking must have preceded $i$-umlaut. But it is incredible that breaking should have taken place in a form *hlcex̃̌̃an, in other words that a more or less palatal vowel should have developed after it a back element (whether labial or not) before a double consonant which had already undergone palatalisation. Therefore breaking must have taken place in this case before gemination. But up to the time of gemination the original Germanic division of syllables *ta-lja- *hla- $j a$ - etc. appears to have been preserved (cf. Sievers P.B.B. xvi. 262 ff .). It appears therefore that breaking must have taken place before heterosyllabic $-\chi$-. But if breaking could take place in a group $-a^{x}-\chi j a^{x}$ - there is no reason why it should not be possible also in a group $-a^{x}-\chi a^{x}-\dagger$. This brings us to a solution identical in principle, though not in detail, with that proposed long ago by Holtzmann (Altd. Gr. pp. 179-181, 213), namely that certain vowels (in reality $a, \check{c}, e, \breve{\imath}$ ) underwent breaking before $\chi$ in all positions. This theory is I believe the only one which will satisfactorily explain all the difficulties which beset the question of contraction. The form taken by breaking before heterosyllabic $-\chi$ - in each case may safely be assumed to be identical with the form which it took before $\chi+$ consonant and before final $\chi$, namely 1. eo<e, e.g. W. Sax. *seohan $>$ sēon, ${ }^{*}$ teohadce $>$ tēode, 3 sg. ${ }^{*}$ tweohap $>$ twḕð, Conj. * seohce
 dialect of the Psalter on the other hand -e- must have been restored by palatal umlaut, hence sean, sian $<$ *sehan, Conj. se $<{ }^{*}$ sehce etc. ; so also in the 3 sg . Ps. sir < *sihip where West Saxon preserves the breaking but has syncopated the second syllable sieh $\gamma$. 2. $\bar{\imath} u(\bar{\imath} o)<\bar{\imath}$, e.g. W. Sax. * wrīuhan $>$ wrēon, Conj. *wrīuhce $>$ wrēo ; the Psalter has wrean $<$ * wrîhan with palatal umlaut. The phonetic confusion of the West Saxon diphthongs $\bar{e} o$ and $\bar{i} 0$, and of the diphthongs $\bar{e} a$ and $\bar{\imath} a$ in the dialect of the Psalter took place no doubt after the contraction period.

+ Sievers is now inclined to adopt the same explanation (Gr.2 §84, Anm. 2, § 111. 2 etc.).

The dipththong in W. Sax. Inf. slēan, N.A. sg. $\bar{e} a$ seems to me to point to the existence of forms * slceahan, * ceahu (cf. -eah in Chart. 52,53 ) before the period of contraction. Then the effect produced on -a- (as also upon $-e-,-i-$ ) by a following $-\chi$ - was identical with the effect produced by labial umlaut (e.g. in L.V. beadu- beside badu-). In the dialect of the Psalter palatal umlaut would produce (pl.) *slcehað and (from 1 sg. *slceahu) *slcehu which would regularly lead to stēað, slèa. The West Saxon Conj. slèa will then come quite regularly from *slealce, while the G.D. sg. $\bar{e} e$ will come from an earlier ${ }^{*}$ iehi (or more exactly ${ }^{*}$ (eaiki) with a diphthong apparently identical with that in 3 sg . slieh 万. The Psalter has Conj. sg. sle $(9,29)$ and Iudic. 2,3 sg. sles, sle $ð$ (so also бwes, $\delta$ we $\gamma$ ). The result of the contraction of $a+i$ is obviously $\bar{e}$ in this dialect, and unless sle is a mistake for *sle the same must be true for the contraction of $a+c$. This seems to point to a second and later change of $\bar{e}>\bar{e}$ in the dialect of the Psalter, for a change of this kind was in operation before the period of contraction (cf. p. 13). The late Northumbrian forms are very difficult. The vocalism of Germ. *slahan- appears in the Lindisfarne gloss under the following forms: Indic. sg. $-\alpha$ - and -ae- (13 examples in all) ; Indic. pl. -ae- (10), -á- (1), -aa- (1) ; Conj. -ace- (1), -a (1) ; Infin. -aa (10), -ae (6), -ea (1); Participle -ce- (1), -ae(1) besides forms with $-g$-. The Imperative slah (2) must be due to analogical influence as is shown by pret. saeh etc. in spite of סuahles (Joh. 12, 3). Of the other forms the 2,3 sg. slaes, slae $\begin{gathered}\text { may come regularly from *sloehis, }\end{gathered}$ *sleehir (cf. Cp. 1857 slaet). I am not convinced that Sievers' explanation of the Infin. slaa (§ 166) is correct; $-a-$ before $-\chi$ - occurs also in acha Bede III. 6 but this word may be related to W. Sax. earh as L.V. hadda (1. 159) to heard and may consequently belong to the same series as ceolla, beonna etc. (: ceorl, beorn); again with Lind. סualles may be compared Ef. 326 thuachl, though the corresponding gloss in Corpus (641) has 万huehl; probably the influence of $-w$ - is to be taken into account (cf. p. 35) ; the only other case of $-a-$ before $-h$ - in the glossaries is the doubtful Cp. slahae (1576
cf. p. 139). On the whole it seems to me the most probable that the difference between slea and slaa (perhaps also slce) is purely orthographical and that the sound was a "low mixed" vowel identical with that in おarf, おurf, خearf (cf. p. 36) arising through mutual assimilation of the two members of the diphthong. It is true that $-a$ - is not used for $-\bar{e} a-<G e r m$. $a u$, but it is quite possible that the older and later $\bar{c} a$ - diphthongs did not fall together in Northumbrian, the former having begun the change to - $\bar{e} a-$ (cf. p. 12) before the latter was fully developed. From Germ. *pwaxanwe have in Lindisfarne: Indic. 1 sg. סоа (1), 2, 3 sg. ðuoas (3), pl. ðwas (1), Conj. ðоa (1), Infin. ðоа (3), ðиоа (1), Impv. ঠuah (3). It seems quite as likely that -oa- comes from -ceaas that it comes from $-a$-.

Setting aside the problematical forms of Lindisfarne $\dagger$, contraction in all dialects regularly takes place according to the following rules: 1. -w-, -i- disappear, e.g. W. Sax. sēo, slèa, wrēo, flè,$f \bar{o}<{ }^{*}$ seohce, *slaeahce, * wrīuhce, * fieohce, ${ }^{*}$ föhce ; Ps. se, flen < *sehce, * flēhcen and probably sle < *slēe <*slochac ; W. Sax. $\bar{\imath} e<{ }^{*} i e h i$; Ps. sið, wrì, tì̀, hè < * sihip, ${ }^{*}$ wrī̀hip, *tīhip, *hēhip and probably sleঠ < * slēp (cf. Lind. slae $ð)<{ }^{*}$ slcehip. 2. -a- disappears after back vowels and diphthongs whose second member is a back vowel e.g. W. Sax. fōn, sēon, slēan, wrēon, flēon, hēa< ${ }^{*}$ fōhan, ${ }^{*}$ seohan, *slceahan, *wrīuhan, *fēohan, *hēaha; and forms a diphthong with front vowels and diphthongs whose second member is a front vowel, e.g. W. Sax. hēan < *hiehan; Ps. sean, slear, wrean, hea < *sehan, *slcehap, *wrīhan, *hēha. 3. $-u$ disappears after diphthongs e.g. W. Sax. $\bar{e} a<$ ceahu, $n \bar{e} a-<* n \bar{e} a h u-$ and forms a diphthong with front vowels e.g. Ps. -sio, slea, neo-<*sehu (*sihu?) * slcehu, *nēhu-. Contraction therefore follows fixed principles. By this theory also the W. Sax. Conj. sēo, slēa, wrēo are found to be perfectly regular and we escape from the necessity of having to suppose that in West Saxon and in that dialect alone $-\ell$ - was pre-

[^7]served in the Infinitive; the 3 sg. sieh $\delta$, slieh $\delta$, wrīeh $\delta$ again apart from the syncope in the two former turn out to be quite regular, coming from earlier *siuhip, *sliehip, * wrīuhi\}.

Note 1. Chronology of the sound-changes treated above.
The discussion of the effects of $i$-umlaut, palatal umlaut and contraction enables us to arrive at some reasonably probable conclusions with regard to the relative chronology of these changes. 1. Contraction through the loss of intervocalic - $h$ - was preceded in Northumbrian and in the dialect of the Psalter by palatal umlaut (cf. p. 10), and by the change $\bar{e}^{4}>\bar{e}$ (cf. p. 13). 2. The change of $\bar{e}^{4}>\bar{e}$, which seems to have been contemporaneous with the change of $\bar{e}^{1}$ and $\bar{e}^{3}>\bar{e}$ (cf. p. 11), was preceded by palatal umlaut. 3. Palatal umlaut was later than $i$-umlaut (cf. p. 5).

For fixing the absolute chronology the safest evidence is that of the Moore MS. (M.) of Bede which appears to have been written in 737. In this MS. intersonantal $-h$ - is always lost, e.g. -halce v. 24, selces IV. 13, v. 18, ea IV. 16, eumer II. 9, treanta III. 24, etc. (cf. Pogatscher, E. S. xix. 347, Anm. 2). The form ea is especially important since it shows that contraction was fully developed. From this fact, together with the total absence of forms with $-h$ - in M. and all other Northumbrian texts, we are bound to conclude that the loss of intersonantal - $h$ - must have taken place before the end of the seventh century, and this conclusion agrees with the evidence from other parts of England. The glossaries frequently retain forms with $-h$-, but there can scarcely be any doubt that the original archetype MS. of Epinal Erfurt (which can hardly have been written after 720 , cf. p. 154 ff .) contained examples of contraction due to this cause. In a Kentish charter of 679 (O. E. T. No. 4) we find an example of $-h$ - in uelhisci, but in the same charter there is apparently a case of contraction in uuestan ae. The writing -ae-for $\bar{e}^{1}$, $\bar{x}^{3}, \bar{c}^{4}$ on the other hand is frequent in M. In aeduini, etc., it may very well be due to copying from older documents,
but the form baeda, which is not peculiar to M. (though C. has beada in v. 24), seems to show that Bede himself wrote his name thus. Therefore since Bede was born in 672 this makes it probable that -ae- was the customary spelling at least as late as 680 . Palatal umlaut, as has been said above, is universal in M . with the exception of several cases of earcon (cf. p. 8 f.).

For the period before 737 we are practically dependent on the evidence of a few Runic inscriptions. There is a very strong probability that the inscription of Bewcastle dates from a time not long after 664 (cf. Vietor, p. 46). This inscription seems to have $e=\bar{c}^{4}$ in becn and $e=\bar{e}^{1}$ in hwatred. Unfortunately neither letter is quite clear, but in thie former case at least $a$ seems to be impossible. The inscription on the casket of Clermont shows a consistently archaic form of language such as would scarcely be possible after 700, though the use of $-f$ in wylif prevents us from assigning to it a much earlier date. Especially noticeable is the form flodu which can be nothing but a N. sg. form with retention of $-u$. But that this $-u$ was no longer pronounced seems to be shown by its absence in -nez and probably also by its incorrect usage in 3 iupeasu. Palatal umlaut in this inscription is shown by -ne3, fe3tal, beriz, and probably ferzen-. The first of these also shows $e=\bar{\omega}^{4}$, but against this stands $\mathscr{e}=\bar{w}^{1}$ in $p \bar{e} r \dagger$. According to Pogatscher (E. S xix. 347) this inscription shows loss of $-h$ - in -walus (twice) which he identifies with walh.

The evidence of these early inscriptions together with M. seems to show that the operation of palatal umlaut can not have been later than the middle of the seventh century. The only case (apart from earcon- above) in Northumbrian in which a diphthong is preserved is the form eoh in the inscription of Kirkheaton. Since the stone bears no cross or other sign of Christian influence it is quite likely to date from the first half of cent. viI. It may be mentioned that Kirkheaton is in the neighbourhood of the supposed site of
$\dagger$ Not indeed an absolutely safe example since Lindisfarne twice has $\begin{array}{r}\text { ar }\end{array}$ (probably at first the unaccented form) against 141 der.

Campodunum ubi tunc etiam (i.e. in Edwin's reign) uilla regia erat (Bede II. 14). The inscription must on the other hand be later than 616, as appears from the words of Nennius ipse (i.e. Edwin) occupauit Elmet et expulit Certic regem illius regionis (Harl. §63). The irregular syncope of $-u$ in eoh can not perhaps be taken as a proof that $-u$ had been already syncopated after long syllables.

The Alphabet in Codex Salisburgensis 140 may be briefly discussed here. It appears to be a late copy of a Northumbrian text of the 8th century, which there is some evidence for connecting with Alchwine. Syncope of $-u$ appears in ðorn, uyn, ac, ti and irregularly in fech; palatal umlaut appears in fech, ih, ilcs, berc, eh. On the other hand there is no certain occurrence of $e$ for $\bar{\omega}$. -ae for $\bar{\omega}^{1}$ appears in gaer and -ae- for $\vec{e}^{3}$ in naed. In spite of these archaisms however the umlaut in geofu and the use of $\gamma$ - in ðorn seem to point to a later date for the original than that of M. It is noticeable that the new letters for guttural $c, 3$ do not occur. They are absent also from Clermont but both appear in Bewcastle, though the old letter for $c$ is used also with guttural value (in becn).

The conclusions arrived at during the above discussion may be briefly summarised as follows:-1. Palatal umlaut seems to have taken place before 650. 2. The change of $\overline{e^{1}}$ $\left(\bar{e}^{3}, \bar{e}^{4}\right)>\bar{e}$ was in operation about $650-680$; the loss of intersonantal - $h$ - belongs to the same period or a little later. 3. Contraction through the loss of intervocalic $-h$ - follows the preceding and may be dated roughly about $680-710$. These arguments apply primarily of course only to the Northumbrian dialect, but there is nothing in the language of the Psalter to show that the same does not hold good here also in the main. The most important difference is that palatal umlaut in this dialect was preceded by labial umlaut; there is a difference also in the treatment of the intervocalic group -rh- (cf. p. 7 f., 9).

Note 2. The discussion of these questions throws some light upon the history of the Germanic diphthong au.

1. Germ. $a u$ was during the seventh century in Northumbrian and in the dialect of the Psalter a diphthong, the first member of which was an $\bar{c}$-sound. This is shown:i. by the occasional forms with -aea-, -aeo- in M. A similar instance occurs in a Kentish charter of 732 aeanberhti (O.E.T. 6) ; with this may be compared the form aea (O.E.T. 5,7 ) with diphthong arising from contraction, and the forms -haeardi, -iaeardi (O.E.T. 6) with short diphthongs. The later examples of -cea-, e.g. Ps. gerceafie (9, 30), C. P. ðaah (H. 357), are so rare that no certain conclusions can be drawn from them $\dagger$. ii. by the effects of palatal umlaut which produced $\bar{x}$ (whence later $\bar{e}$ ) at least in Northumbrian.
2. Since the effect of $i$-umlaut upon this diphthong is identical in all dialects with its effect on the short diphthongs (cf. p. 3 ff .), it would seem that at that period the difference between the two classes of diphthongs was one of quantity only.
3. At the time when the Germanic gutturals $k, 3$ were palatalised before palatal vowels (which took place before the completion of $i$-umlaut) the first member of this diphthong (as also of the short diphthong arising from Germ. a before $r+$ consonant) must have had palatal value. Unfortunately no examples of Germ. kau- 3 au- are preserved in the Runic character and only one of Germ. 亏̌ar- (namely Ruthwell jeredse), but the later history of these combinations leaves no room for doubt. Examples from other early sources are iaces, Ef. 263, and the corresponding ieces in Cp. (380), -iaee in a Kentish Charter of 740 (O.E.T. 7); so also in Bede Iv. 6, C. has suthriena against M. B. N. sudergeona (cf. iaruman M. III. 24, etc.).

The sound change $a u>\bar{e} a$ has been explained in various ways. The most generally accepted theories are those of

[^8]Kluge (P. G. I. p. 880) and of Paul (P. B. B. Vi. 96). According to Kluge, with whom Sweet (H. E. S. § 459) practically agrees, the development was $a u>\propto u>$ ко $>$ éa (Sweet caa). But in that case the history of the diphthong au must from the beginning have been entirely different from that of the diphthong ai. In the other Germanic languages the history of the two diphthongs is in general the same; thus in Old Saxon $a i>\bar{e}, a u>\bar{o}$; in Old High German $a i>e i$, $a u>o u$ (with reservations); in Old Norse $a i>c e i, a u>\ell u$ (also with reservations) ; and so far as it is possible to estimate, the changes in the two diphthongs appear to have been at least approximately contemporaneous. Hence in English we should, as Sweet (H. E. S. § 445) says, expect a change $a i>c i$. By this theory also we are bound to separate English entirely from Frisian which has $\bar{\alpha}<a u$. Paul on the other hand gives $a u>a o$ (which he says was contemporaneous with the change $e u>e o)>\infty \circ>\alpha c a$. This however can not be altogether right, for Germ. eu is still occasionally preserved in the oldest texts, e.g. 3 reut (Clermont), hreutford (M.), steupfaedaer (Ep.), while forms with -ao- are absolutely unknown-indeed the palatalisation of the first member of the diphthong must, as has been said above, have taken place before the palatalisation of initial gutturals, which was long before the date of the oldest texts. But there is one point to which sufficient attention has not been given by either theory, namely that the first element in the diphthong au (and so also in the diphthongs $e u, i u)$ must have undergone lengthening; for the difference between (e.g.) Ps. saeh and fleh is only intelligible on the hypothesis that at the time when palatal umlaut took place there was a quantitative difference between these words (*sceah—* flōah). The diphthongisation of Germ. $a, e, i$ which took place before $-\chi$ - did not of course lengthen the syllable, but the exact parallelism (e.g. in respect to palatal umlaut) which exists between the new and old diphthongs makes it probable that the second element in the old diphthongs was at an early period no more stressed than the new element developed after Germ. $a, e, i$ before $\chi$, and
that therefore the difference between the two classes of diphthongs consisted simply of a difference of quantity in the first element. But when did the lengthening of the first element take place?

It is quite possible that the first stages in the development of the diphthongs $a u$, ai may have been identical. In the case of Germ. ai the development in English may have been $a i>\bar{a} i>\bar{a}^{i}>\bar{a}$ with gradual absorption of the second element as in Lith. (dialectic) kális <káilis $\dagger$. The same process may have begun also in the case of the diphthong au and seems to have been completely carried out in Frisian, eg. 3 sg. pret. flah (=uolauit Ps. 17) against Engl. (Ps.) Aleh, cf. Lith. dial. spiáju < spiáuju; but in English its further development was hindered by the palatalisation of the first element. The change $\bar{a} u>\bar{e} u$ might be identified with the change $\bar{a}>\bar{e}^{1}$ (in W. Sax. strēet Kent. North. strēt, etc.), but against this stands the fact that Frisian has on the one hand $f(\bar{a} h, \bar{a} g e ~(: W . ~ S a x . ~ f l e ̄ a h, ~ e ̄ a g e), ~ o n ~ t h e ~ o t h e r ~ r e ̄ d, ~ b r e ̄ k o n ~$ (: W. Sax. r $\bar{e} d, b r \bar{e} c o n$ ). It is more likely that the change $\bar{a} u>\bar{e} u$ was due to the same phonetic causes as the changes $\bar{\alpha} u>\bar{e} u$ (whence later $\bar{e} a$ ) in $f \bar{e} a$ (cf. p. 44), $\breve{w} u>\breve{e 匕 u} u$ in slèena, ēa, etc. (cf. p. 21), and (labialised) $a$ (more strictly $\breve{a} u$ ) $>\breve{e 匕 u}(w a)$ in beadu- etc.; in other words that there was a universal palatalisation of $\check{a}$ (without regard to the quantity) before a tautosyllabic $u$-element. This palatalisation did not take place in Frisian, but the former presence of an $u$-element is shown by the preservation of $-a$ - in 3, sg. pret. machte. The relationship of Fris. machte: flăh is then identical with the relationship of Engl. Ps. saeh, maehte: fleh, W. Sax. seah: flēah. The development of this $u$-element

[^9]in Fris. machte, will be due to the same cause as the breaking in riucht (: W. S. reoht etc., Ps. reht).

The change in the second member of the $\check{a} u$-diphthongs ( $\breve{a} u>\breve{\mathscr{c}} \ell$, written $a e 0, ~ a e(a)$ is no doubt due to its lack of stress. It is a case of partial assimilation ; in the language of phonetics the high back labial element $u$ was assimilated to the low front $c$, becoming the corresponding low back labial ( $\ell)$. A similar change in the reverse direction is shown by the diphthong $\bar{\tau} u<i a$ in friu- etc. (cf. p. 56 ff .). The change $\epsilon_{Q}>\omega_{a}$ is parallel to the universal change $\ell>a$ in unaccented syllables, and may be due in this case as in that to the absence of stress on the element $Q$.

Lastly there is a change $\bar{c} a>\bar{e} a$ which seems to be due to tone-raising in the first element of the diphthong, though the cause of this is not obvious. In Northumbrian this change seems not to have affected the short cea-diphthongs, which had arisen by breaking from Germ. a (cf. p. 22). The change $\bar{c} a>\bar{e} a$ (and probably also $a a>e a$ ) may have taken place earlier in West Saxon than elsewhere. Such a hypothesis would at least account for the peculiar results of $i$-umlaut in diphthongs which this dialect presents.
3. The Diphthongs arising from Germ. $a, e, i$ before $r, l$ followed by a Consonant.

Breaking before $l+$ consonant is confined to the Southern dialects and does not occur in the earliest Kentish texts (before 770). Before dealing with this subject it is necessary to discuss briefly the treatment of Germ. a before $l+$ consonant in the Midland and Northern dialects.

There is no evidence whatever in these dialects to show that $-a$ - in this position had ever become palatalised ( $\left(e^{1}\right)$ or undergone breaking. A preceding guttural is not palatalised, and in respect of $i$-umlaut the treatment of $a$ in this position is precisely similar to that of $\bar{a}<$ Germ. $a i$. Hence it has often been too readily assumed that $a$ in this position underwent lengthening before the operation of $i$-umlaut. This however is a mistake. No lengthening took place before
antevocalic -lh-; for that Ps. 3 sg. fileð, Conj. fele have a short initial syllable is shown by the new formation in the Pret. pl. felun (=félun) and probably also by the umlaut in Infin. fealan (cf. p. 8). So also N.E. Wales presupposes wălas (not wälas) < *walhas. But since the loss of $-h$ - in the antevocalic group - $l h$ - did not take place till after the operation of palatal umlaut (cf. p. 8, 9), the lengthening must belong to a period much later than that of $i$-umlant. When this lengthening took place and how far it was conditioned (as in Fris. kăld but hăls) by the following sounds are questions that need not be discussed here. The correct statement of the law for the Northumbrian and Midland dialects (as also for Frisian) is that the change of $-a l->e^{1} l-$ was prevented by a following consonant.

Some explanation of the fact that this change did not take place is certainly needed. The treatment of Germ. $a$ before nasals can not be compared in any way, for not only had a qualitative change in the value of $a$ taken place at an early date in the latter case, but further the nasal exercised its influence in all positions alike, whether final or when followed by a consonant or vowel. But before final $-l$ and before $-l$ - followed by a vowel the treatment of $a$ is identical with its treatment before other consonants in the same positions. The only peculiarity is the retention of $-a$ - before $-l$ - followed by a consonant. I do not see any explanation for this phenomenon other than the suggestion-which is not new-that these syllables were not really close at the time when the cbange $a>w^{1}$ in close syllables took place,in other words that svarabhakti had operated at this time. Svarabhakti between $l$ and a following consonant is a frequent phenomenon in the other Germanic languages and is not unknown in the earliest English texts, e.g. -ualach in the Namur MS. of Bede, wylif in Clermont, aluch- in L.V. and probably ilugsegg in Epinal (against ilcs in the Alphabet). The subsequent disappearance of the svarabhaktic vowel may be due to the same causes as the loss of the interior syllable in Cp. heolstras beside Ep. helustras, Bede C. ceortes beside M. cerotaes (iv. 6) etc.

This theory has been attacked on the ground that svarabhakti is impossible in the medial group -ll- before which $-a$ - is nevertheless preserved. But as a matter of fact it is questionable whether the change $a>\boldsymbol{c}^{1}$ is regular before double consonants in general (except those arising from gemination before $-j$-, in which case the change $a>c^{1}$ probably preceded the gemination cf. p. 76). Thus in Liber Vitae we find bacga (5), adda (4), hadda, atta, abba, adding, addul, bralluc against aella (2), aelli, aetti, paelli, the last three of which almost certainly have $i$-umlaut, as all dissyllabic names ending in $-i$ in Liber Vitae have either $-i$ or umlaut vowels with the single exception of cuddi (l. 161); uella may also have $i$-umlaut. Sievers (§ 10) gives a listwhich might be greatly extended-of words which preserve $-a$ - before a double consonant. Thus, whatever may be the explanation of $-a$ - before $-l l$ - as also before other double consonants-and in none of these cases is its preservation likely to be due to svarabhakti-this fact can not be used as an argument against the possibility of svarabhakti in the case of $-l$ - followed by some dissimilar consonant.

The treatment of Germ. -ala- at the end of the first member of a compound is not quite clear; both -al- and -celoccur. In such forms as Ep. uuuelreab secondary influence from the uncompounded form is possible, but it is not easy to see how such can be the case with aelberct which occurs twice (1.86, 154) in Liber Vitae. Yet on the other hand L.V. has 25 alberct, 4 albercht, 2 alric, 1 aluich (1. 73) and 1 aluych (1. 165) $\dagger$; Bede likewise has alric. The absence of forms with *all- is against the supposition that the vocalism has been affected by *alla-; so that, in spite of the fact that ael- remains unexplained, the superiority of the evidence for al- compels us to see in this the regular representative of Germ. ala-. Again in Cp. walcyrge (771), walcrigge (1018), unalcyrge (2017) the influence of the uncompounded form is much less likely than in uuaelreab. That the change $a>c^{1}$ did not regularly take place in this position is also made

[^10]probable by the comparative lateness of the syncope of Germ. $-a$ - in this position (cf. p. 77 f.).

It must be remembered that in contrast to the breaking before $-\chi$ - the condition necessary for breaking before $r, l$ was that these sounds should be immediately followed by a consonant. Before final $-r$, $-l$ no breaking took place (cf. 3 sg. pret. boer, steel); hence the supposition that breaking was due simply to the fact that $r, l$ were not homorganic with $c e, e, i$ is out of the question.

According to the generally accepted view breaking before $r, l$ took place before the operation of $i$-umlaut, and this theory perfectly suits the complete agreement which prevails in all dialects between the $i$-umlant of Germ. $a$ before $r+$ consonant (and in West Saxon before $l+$ consonant) and the $i$-umlaut of Germ. au. The fact that before $r+$ consonant the Northumbrian and Midland dialects have e- (e.g. L.V. uern-, Ps. erm $\check{\text { u }}$ ), might indeed be used as an argument for showing that the forms existing immediately before the operation of $i$-umlant had - $e^{1}$ - ( ${ }^{*} w\left(e^{1} r n i\right.$-, *ermi $)$ u), but then the diphthongal forms of West Saxon and the -ae- forms of the glosses would need explanation; but it has been shown above (p. 5 f.) that these $e$ - forms are in all probability to be explained otherwise. On the other hand the accepted view is confirmed by Ps. wyře, wyrrest, etc. These forms must have ${ }^{*} w y r$ - < *wur- by $i$-umlaut, and *wur must have been a monophthongised form of *wiur-. A similar (though somewhat later) change is seen in wudu<*wiudu<widu (Ep. uuidu-). Again in the case of W. Sax. $-a$ - before $l+$ consonant, it has been pointed out above (p. 19 f.) that the cause of the absence of breaking in tellan must be either that breaking had ceased to operate when the gemination of $-l$ - took place or that the - $l l$ - was still palatal enough to prevent breaking from taking effect. If the latter explanation is correct the presence of breaking in 3 sg . fielo etc. shows that in such words -ll- were not yet palatalised and conse-
quently that $i$-umlaut had not yet begun when breaking was in operation $\dagger$.

There are not sufficient data for deciding definitely the chronological relation of the breaking before $r, l+$ consonant to the syncope of final (Germ.) - $a$ and to the change of $a>c^{1}$ in close syllables. For the change of $a>$ cea (e.g. in *harru$>$ hoeard) does not necessarily involve the assumption of an intermediate stage $-\infty$ - (e.g. *hcerdu). This is clear from the use of beadu-, heaðu- beside badu-, haðu- in Liber Vitae and elsewhere, while *bcedu-, *hcertu- are unknown. But though not absolutely necessary the assumption is made very probable by the fact that breaking is found also before $-r-<$ Germ. $-z$ e.g. in mearg (: O. Bulg. mozgŭ), probably also in Ps. gerd, W.S. gyrd $<{ }^{*}$ zceardi : Goth. gazds cf. p. 123); -z- was preserved at least before $-n$ - until after the change $a>c^{1}$ had taken place (cf. Kluge, P.G. ${ }^{2}$ p. 372). So also the corresponding forms in Frisian show the change $a>c e$ (whence $e$ ) but no breaking e.g. O.E. Fris. therwe, kerf, bern, erm, hermskeed, therm, merc, merch, beside W. Sax. pearf, cearf, bearn, earm, hearm, pearm, mearc, mearg ${ }_{\ddagger}$. The Merseburg glosses have therua but iermhed. If then the change $a>e^{1}$ preceded breaking, it follows in all probability that the latter took place subsequently to the syncope of final $-a$, for there is no reason to suppose that any change $a>c$ took place before that. Forms like bearu, gearu must therefore like feger, cecer etc. be due to the influence of those forms in which the case-ending was preserved $\|$.
$\dagger$ In the case of $-i$ - breaking may have been repeated later. Thus in W.
 quent to the syncope of $-i$-. Possibly also the breaking in iernan, biernan may not belong to the early period.
$\ddagger$ There is no necessity for supposing that breaking has ever taken place in O.E. Fris. warth, swart, warte (: O.E. wearb, sweart, wearte). These words may have $a<a$ (through the influence of initial $w$-) as in was: O.E. was.
\| Sievers' explanation of acer, fager etc. (§ 49, cf. § 14) is not quite satisfactory. The regular N. sg. is preserved in forms like wacor: Urn. wakraR (Reidstad) ; so also hagol beside $h c e g(e) l$, the latter form belonging originally to the oblique cases. Similarly in O. Sax. akkar, O.H.G. acchar, a form which belonged originally to the oblique cases has survived and finally ousted

The appearance of -ar- in place of -ear- is common in all dialects in the second member of compound proper names-a fact which is generally, and in all probability rightly, attributed to the fact that such syllables bore a subordinate accent. But in Northumbrian texts (both early and late) the same phenomenon is not unfrequently found in fully accented syllables. Thus Bede M. has farne im. 16, iv. 27, 29, 30; -farnensis Praef., -faronensem III. 22; baruce Iv. 3. Caedmon's Hymn has uard (twice), barnum. Other examples are wark (Clermont), tharf (Bede's Death-song), uarp (Leiden Riddle). Liber Vitae has apparently only one example viz. arduini (1. 213) against 44 examples of eard-, heard-, earn- $\dagger$. The Ritual has altogether 13 examples of -ar- before consonants, viz. arm (as substantive twice and as adjective twice), nedðarf, farra, hehfaro, stancarr, farniga, to-ward (etc. 4 times), against about 120 examples of -ear- in the same position (Lindelöf § 9. r.). Lindisfarne has in St Mark's Gospel 16 examples of - $\alpha$ - (including three of loan-words) viz. arg, gedarste, nedðarf (2), -warð (4), -warp (3), geonduarde (2), carcern (2), carre-besides 8 cases of ard-against 78 examples of ea- (Lea, Angl. xvi. 75, 76). For the other gospels statistics are wanting as yet. $-a$ - is however not rare ; we find e.g. 3 arm (substantive) but no earm, 4 barm against 2 bearm-, 11 ðarf- (ðarfe, סarflic etc.) against 1 бearf, 5 бcerf- ( ( $a e r f-), 1$ ðorfe, 1 бafo ${ }_{\dagger}^{\dagger}$, while -warð etc. are frequent.

In the other dialects the case is quite different. In the early West Saxon texts there are only two examples of -arviz. art (C. 180) Jarf (H. 203). The Psalter has -ar- only in the loan-word carcerne $(141,8)$ and in margen- which however is a case by itself. In the glossaries -ar- is somewhat more frequent. Epinal has only sparuua (897), but Erfurt besides sparua has also uard (333), uuard (737), ediscuard (148).
the regular form of the N.A. sg. The absence of gemination in acer etc. is no argument against this explanation (cf. p. 69 f.).
$\dagger$ In the second member there are 11 examples of -hard against 51 -heard.
$\ddagger$ In ned-§arf -ea- does not occur at all, probably because the second syllable had a subordinate accent.

Corpus has neopoúard (5), sarwo (88), waar (426), bisparrade (1451), barrigae (282), barice (330), tharme (2140), puarm (1795). Leiden varies between $-a$ - and -ae- and has no examples of eea-; but little importance can be attached to this, as this MS. has also other orthographical peculiarities.

The evidence of the glossaries combined with that of the early Northumbrian texts makes it probable either that original $-a$ - remained under certain conditions or at least that the reversion took place very early. It is not unlikely that $-a$ - was preserved before $-r r$ - as before other double consonants (cf. p. 31); this does not apply to $-r r-<-r z-$ before which the change $a>\alpha$ and subsequently breaking seem to have taken place, e.g. in W. Sax. fearr, fear (cf. Kluge Wb. ${ }^{5}$ p. 99). Palatal vowels seem to have undergone breaking before -rr- in West Saxon under all circumstances (e.g. feor, steorra, afierran, ierre), but in the dialect of the Psalter apparently only when the following syllable contained (originally) a back vowel (e.g. feor < *feorru, steorra) or when $-r r$ - represents an older $-r z$ - (e.g. eorre); before $-r r(i)$ - in $a$-firran there is no breaking. Possibly $-a$ - was regularly preserved or restored under certain conditions before $-r w$ - as in Ep. sparuua (cf. O.E. Fris. nara: W. Sax. nearu), but in some of these words - $a$ - may come from forms in which $-w$ - had regularly been lost, e.g. Cp. 88 sarwo for ${ }^{*} \operatorname{sar}(w) u$. $-i$ - is preserved from breaking in Ep. 534 bismiridae (Ef. bismirida, Cp. 1095 bismiride), Cp. 676 gesmirwid, Ps. smire久, smirede, cf. W. Sax. smiriað (H), smirewar (C. 2.), smirede (H. C.), but smierewar (H. p. 69) $\dagger$. In Ep. smeruui etc. the absence of breaking may be due to the N.A. sg. Lastly it may be suggested that in certain cases the influence of initial $w$ - may have tended to restore $-a$ - as in Frisian (cf. p. 33 n.).

The few forms with $-a$ - in the Southern and Midland dialects which do not admit of an explanation on one or other of these hypotheses are so isolated that no stress can be laid on them. But for many of the Northumbrian forms they are obviously inadequate. Nor again can I see that

[^11]there is any probability in Sweet's suggestion (H.E.S. § 436) that the (accented) forms with $-\alpha$ - are an extension of what was originally a "weak variation" of -ea-, though the phonetic development may have been similar to that which took place (in all dialects) in unaccented syllables. There can indeed be no doubt that in many of the later forms $-a$ - is a subsequent development of -ea-. This is shown by such words as Lind. farma ( $<^{*}$ feorm-), cf. fattro etc. beside feotr and waras beside weras. The change appears to be similar to the smoothing of the ea-diphthongs which took place in Middle English (cf. Sweet H.E.S. § 642). The diphthong appears to have been monophthongised by mutual assimilation of the two members, the result being probably not a pure guttural but a 'mixed' vowel. This accounts for forms like $\gamma$ cerf, formo which appear beside ðarf, farma†. But can this explanation hold good also for the $a$-forms in Bede? It is difficult to account for the form iaruman (III. 24, 30, Iv. $3=$ Geneal. gearomon 1. 34) on any other hypothesis. The word occurs in all the early MSS. without any important variation; iuru- in C. III. 30 is doubtless a scribal error. Two points are clear about this word: (1) at the time when guttural consonants were palatalised 3 -must have been followed by a (more or less) palatal vowel. (2) in Bede's pronunciation this vowel can not have been a pure palatal; it is likewise difficult to believe that it was at all distinctly diphthongal. The 'low mixed wide' vowel of Sweet's tables seems best to suit the requirements of the case. If this is so it is a question whether (e.g.) geard in Caedmon's Hymn denotes anything else than $i \bar{a} r d$ ( $-a$ - having the same quality as in iaru- above). The monophthongisation may not have been complete in Bede's time, but in the late Northumbrian texts -ea- is probably traditional spelling. With the rarity of $-a$ - in Liber Vitae is to be compared the extreme rarity of -ea- for -eo- (cf. p. 87). It is possible that the scribe was somewhat of a purist and took pains to preserve the etymologically correct spelling. In some of the Northumbrian forms
$\dagger$ The vowel in farma, fcrmo need not necessarily have been identical with that in §arf, ※erf, but cf. p. 87.
original - $a$ - may have been preserved by svarabhakti-a common phenomenon between $-r$ - and a following consonant both in the earliest English texts (e.g. Bewcastle -buruz, Clermont -beri3, Lancaster -bereht, Bede N. -berict, M. -faronensem, Leid. Rid. aeriqfaerae, Ep. bearug) and in the oldest monuments of the other Germanic languages. But the rarity of $-a$ - in the other dialects makes this hypothesis somewhat improbable.

## 4. The Treatment of Germanic -w-.

I. After short (open) syllables. According $\dagger$ to Sievers (§73) an $-u$ - arose before the $-w$-forming a diphthong with the preceding vowel; hence -ēaw-, -ēow-, -̄̄ow-, W. Sax. $-\bar{\imath} e w-,-\bar{\imath} w$-. The words which show diphthongs of this kind obviously fall into two classes. :
A. Words corresponding to words which contain a diphthong in Old High German and Old Saxon, and to words which contain $-g g(w)$ - in Gothic and Scandinavian ${ }_{\ddagger}^{+}$Only those forms which occur in the early texts are given.

1. O.N. heggua, O.H.G. houwan.
W. Sax. heawan (Oros.), heawað (C.P.), 3 sg. hiew (C.P.), heawen. Perhaps also Cp. 507 onheawas, Ef. 262 heardheui, Cp. -heau Leid. haerdhaeu belong here.
2. O.N. degg, O.H.G. tou.

Cp. 17 万̋2 deawe, Ps. deaw.
3. G. glaggwuba, O.N. gleggr, O.H.G. glouwēr.

Cp. 1728 gleu 203 gleaunisse; Ps. gleawne (Acc. sg.), gleawnisse; W. Sax. gleaw, gleawmod, ungleawlice (all in C.P.), gleawast (Oros.).
4. M.H.G. nouwe, cf. O.N. hnøggua (Noreen. Urg. Lautl. § 45. II. 1).
W. Sax. hneaw hneawnes (C.P.).
$\dagger$ In the new edition (Gr. ${ }^{3} \S 73$ ) Sievers has abandoned this theory in reference to the forms in B. He apparently does not discuss the A forms in either edition (cf. § 63).
$\ddagger$ The Germanic form of these words is usually given as $-a^{x} w w a^{x}$.
5. O.H.G. scouwōn. Cf. G. sluggwa (but cf. Kögel P.B.B. Ix. 525).

Ps. sceawiu, sceawað etc. (but scewað 93, 9); W. Sax. sceawi(ge)an (C.P. Oros.), sceawung (Oros.).
6. O.H.G. sou, N. Icel. söggr, saggi.

Bede C. (glosses) sea.
7. G. triggws, triggwa, O.N. tryggr, O.H.G. gitriuwi.

Ep. 726, treule : snis Ef. treulesnis, Cp. 1533, treuleasnis, Ep. 436, gitreeudae, Ef. getr(e)udce, Cp. 900, getreuuade, Cp. 857, getriowad; Ps. getreowe etc., getreowlice (2,3), getrewlice (11. 6), getreowu etc., getreowdun; W. Sax. treowa (C.P. Oros.), getreow (C.P.), treowleas (C.P.) etc., triewe (Oros.), -triewan etc. (C.P. Oros.), getriewde etc. (Oros.).
8. O.N. hryggua, O.H.G. riuwan.
W. Sax. hreow (C.P. Oros.), -hreowlice etc. (C.P. Oros.), hreowan (C.P.), hriwð (C.P.), hreowsian etc. (C.P. Oros.) ; Ps. hreowsade.
9. Possibly also Ep. 649 screuиa, Cp. 1344 screauиa: O.N. skreggr.

Diphthongisation is therefore universal and may have taken place very early, though in the absence of forms with $i$-umlaut there is no conclusive evidence. (Cf. Noreen Urg. Lautl. § 45 and the literature there cited; Streitberg, Urg. Gr. § 74.) The only point which requires notice is that -wappears to be lost before consonants in the glossaries (but cf. Cp. gleaunisse), while in West Saxon it is preserved. So also with regard to the loss of $-w$ in sea; possibly Cp. gleu is for *glea.
B. Words in which there is no evidence for early gemination of $-w$ - in the continental languages :
$a$. The corresponding words in the other Germanic languages have intervocalic - $w$-.

The following show diphthongisation :

1. G. fawai, O.N. fár, pl. fáir.

Ps. N. pl. fea, D. pl. feam ; feastan, feanisse. W. Sax. Acc. pl. fea (Chron. A 530, the original reading), N.A. pl.
feawe, feawa, D. pl. feawum (all in C.P. Oros.), feaum, feam (both in C.P.).
2. O. Sax. thau, O.H.G. kathau $\dagger$.
W. Sax. peaw, peawas etc. (C.P.).
3. Urn. frawaraðaR (Möjebro), O. Sax. frao, O.H.G. frawēr, O.N. frár.

Probably Ps. frea-berht, L.V. fre-helm.
4. O.H.G. ou, G. awistr, cf. awepi.

Chart. 41 (Kent.) G. pl. eawa; Ps. (Acc. sg. etc.) eowde, D. pl. eowdum ; Cp. 1274 eouuistras.
5. O.H.G. gistreuui, gistrouwi, cf. strao. O.N. strá.

Ep. 973, -streo Ef. -streu, Cp. -streo, Cp. 13 -streo (West Saxon also strēaw <*strawa-cf. Sievers § 250 n. 2).
6. Urn. pewaR, G. pius etc.

Ps. N.A. sg. ウeow (7), ðiow (11), ðeo (1); G. sg. etc. ðiowes, ðeowes etc. (D. sg. ðieowe once); ઈeowdome etc.; ઈeowiað, ðiowiað ; pret. ðiowedun (1), ðeowdun (1), ðeawde (1); conj. ðiowien (1), ðiwgen (1) ; ðiowincelu. Chart 37. ðiow, ðiowas; 41 万iowe; (both Kentish).
7. O. Sax. beo (G. pl. bewo).
${ }_{\dagger}$ Ep. 645 beouuas, Ef. beouaes, Cp. beowes, Leid. bueues.
8. G. kniwa (N.A. pl.) O.N. kné etc.

Ep. 879 cnioholaen, Ef. cniolen, Cp. cnioholaen, Leid. cneholen; Ps. (N.A. pl.) cneow; W. Sax. (Acc. sg.) cneow (Oros.), D. sg. cneowe (Oros.), N.A. pl. cneowu (C.P.) D. pl. cneowum (Oros.).
9. G. (D. pl.) triwam, O.N. tré etc.

Ep. 36 -trea (? for -treu), Ef. -treu, Cp. (117), -treo, Cp. 1598 -treu, 488 -treo, 150 (pl.) -treu, 279 treuteru; Blickling gloss. (N.A. pl.) -tri(o)w ; Ps. (N.A. sg.), treow (1), trew (1),
$\dagger$ This example belongs to A. according to Kögel P.B.B. rx. 525.
$\ddagger$ It is on account of the Old Saxon forms that I have included this word here. It is difficult however to separate it from O.N. bygg (D. sg. byggvi; c.f. Byggvir). Possibly the Old Saxon word has undergone a change of inflection on the analogy of treo, kneo (trio, knio) etc. In that case the Old English forms should be transferred to A. L.V. biu(u)ulf is probably to be connected with these words.
treo (1), N.A. pl. treow (1), trew (4), treo (2), D. sg. treo (2), G. sg. tres (1), G. pl. trea (2), treo-wyrm; Ct. 1 (E. Sax.) triow, 29 (Saxon-Kentish) trio, 59 (Middlesex), treo (all N.A. sg. or pl.), 48 (Merc.) feower treowe hyl; W. Sax. N.A. sg. treow (C.P.), N.A. pl. treowu (C.P. Oros.), G. sg. treowes (C.P.), D. sg. treowe (C.P.), D. pl. treowum (Oros.).
10. O.N. hé-rað̌, O. Swed. hēe-rap (cf. Noreen, Urg. Lautl. p. 21).

Bede M. heuuald (v. 1, 10), L.V. heouald, hegaer ; perhaps also Ps. heo-redas but cf. p. 50.
11. Urn. (Gallehus) hlewa3astiR etc.
L.V. hleo-berct, hleo-frith etc.
12. Urn. (Tune) wiwaR.

Bede M os-uiu ( 5 times as N. sg., also once in the list of kings at the end). L.V.-uio (5), Geneal. osuio, osuing; Bewc. oswiung ; W. Sax. Chron. A. osweo (3), -wio (2), 716 alweo, alweoing (but cf. Geneal. 1. 98).
13. O.H.G. pret. siuita etc.

Ep. Ef. 796, 886 -siuuid, Cp. 1591 -siowid, 1763 -siouuid; Ep. 699 -siuuidi, Ef. -siuuisidi, Cp. 1450 -siudi, Cp. 68, -siuwide, 1374 -siuwid, 1774 siowid, 1773 siour.
14. G. hiwi etc.

Cp. N. sg. 188 hio; Ps. N.A. sg. hiow (3), heow (1), G. hiowes, D. hiowe, hiowian, etc. (hiewade 32.15); W. Sax. hiew (C.P.), híw (H.), hiow (C), hiewes (C.), hiwes (H), hiewe (C.P.), hiwe (H).
15. Perhaps: O.N. lére, O. Swed. lār (<*lawiz-? otherwise explained by Noreen, Urg. Lautl. p. 132, and Zupitza, Germ. Gutt. p. 65).

Lor. Gloss. 10 leower.
In the following cases forms with diphthongisation are found beside forms with - $w$-.
16. O.H.G. drōa, drawa etc.

Ps. N. sg., N.A. pl. ðrea, D. pl. ঠream; ðregu, סreað, ðreade etc., ঠreange; Cp. 180 breade; W. Sax. ঠreagean, ðreað etc. (C.P.).

Ep. 53 thrauu, Ef. trafu, Cp. thrauuo.
17. O.H.G. clōa, clawa (cl̄̄wa according to Braune § 208, Anm. 5).

Ps. Acc. pl. clea.
Ep. 29 clauuo Ef. Cp. clauuo. Cp. 1842 clawe.
The following have forms with $-w$ - only.
18. G. straujan, strawida; O.H.G. streuuen, strouuen.
W. Sax. strewede (C.P.); for Ef. streidce etc., cf. p. 121 n.
19. O.H.G. gisewan.
W. Sax. gesewen (C.P. Oros.).
20. O.H.G. gispiwan.
W. Sax. utaspiwen (H.).
21. O.H.G. bisiwan : sīhan.
W. Sax. siwen-igge (C.P.).
22. Chart. 40 (Kentish) ðiwen may be compared with $G$. biwi etc.
$\beta$. Corresponding forms with $-w$ - are wanting in the other Germanic languages. The following show diphthongisation :

1. O.N. ey, O.H.G. ouwa.

Bede N. sg. eu (very frequent in all MSS. especially M. In B. it is usually corrected to $i g$ by the second hand). The D. sg. e (Iv. 3), ci (v. 19) and the forms of the other dialects, viz. Ct. 33, D. sg. egi, 45 ege (both Kentish), W. Sax. D. sg. ige (H. Chron.), ige (H.), iege, igge, eigge, eige (Chron.), iegbuend (C.P.), igland (Oros.)-show a different stem. Bede M. (N. sg.) ei (Iv. 6) is perhaps a Southern form.
2. G. niujis, O.N. nýr (<* ${ }^{*}$ niuja-), O.H.G. niuwi. $_{\text {I }}$

Ps. neowe, niowe; neowne, niowne; geedneowað etc.; Bede C. gloss. 87, neowre ; W. Sax. niwe, niwu, niwa (Oros.), niwan (H. Oros.), niewan (C), niwne (H.), geedniwað (C.P.), geedniewað (H.), niwlice (Oros.); for nicealt (Oros.) cf. Cosijn, I. p. 58.
3. O.N. gly (<*zliuja-).

Ep. 398. gliu, Ef. gliu, Cp. glio, Ep. 550 gliuuae, Ef. gluuiae, Cp. gliowe, Cp. 948 gliu, 354 glio. The correspond-
ing W. Sax. forms are D. sg. gligge (C), glige (H), gliiman, gliigman, gligman (C.P.).
4. O.H.G. kliuwa.

Ep. 472. cleouиae, Ef. cleuиae, Cp. clouиe ; cf. W. Sax. cliwen- (C.P.), cliewen- (H.).
5. Cp. 561, 2091 mundleu, Ef. 1055 munleuи (Ep. mundl::). Cf. O.N. mundlaug?
6. Ps. oteawu (3), -eawe (1), -eawer (1), odeawes (1), oteaw (6), pret. -eawde etc. (5), oteowu (1), oteowdun (1); W. Sax. (Cosijn, I. § 100) -iewan (H. 2, C. 4), -iewanne (H. 1), -ieweð (H. 1, С. 1), -iewð (H. 2, C. 2), pl. -iewað (H. 3, С. 1), -iwað (C. 1), Conj. -iewe, -iewen (H. 7, C. 7), pret. iewde etc. (H. 3, C. 6, Chron. 4), -iede (H. 2), past ptcple, -iewd- (H. 2, C. 1), -iewed (Oros. 3); Infin. -eowan (C. 1), -iowan (H. 2), -eowian (H. 6, C. 1), 3 sg. -eoweð (H. 1), -iowar (C. 1),-eowað (H. 3, C. 1), pl. eowiar (H. 3), Conj. -eowi(g)e, -eowi(g)en (H. 2, C. 3), pret. -eowde (H. 2, C. 1), past ptcple -eowad, (H. 1). C. has the participle -eawde once, and Orosius has the participle -ewed once and the preterite -ewde twice. Cf. Noreen Urg. Lautl. pp. 29, 179 ; Zupitza, Germ. Gutt. p. 74.
7. Geneal. 1. 104, cynreou, cynreowing; L.V. 1. 170, riuualch, 211 riuuala, cf. Sievers (P.B.B. xviiI. 414).
8. Geneal. ll. 98, 101 eowa (2), eowing (2); W. Sax. Chron. 716, 755 , eawa (2), eawing (2).
9. Bede II. 5, iII. 23 caelin, II. 5 ceaulin (given as a West Saxon form) ; L.V.l. 222 celin; W. Sax. Chron. ceaulin (6), ceawlin (10), Sax. Geneal. (O.E.T. p. 179), l. 5, 6 ceaulniing, ceaul(i)n. Cf. L.V. l. 201 caua.
10. W. Sax. Chron. 577, gleawanceaster (<Lat. gleuum, cf. W. caergleu).

To the above might be added the numeral feower and certain preterite forms, e.g. Ps. cneow, seowun ; but since their history is still in many points obscure, they are better omitted.

The following show forms with $-w-$ -
11. Ep. 29, auuel, Ef. auuel, Cp. 211 awel, Cp. 929 awel, 2047 auuel, cf. Zupitza, Germ. Gutt. p. 63.
12. Ef. 305, couel, Cp. cauuel, Ef. 1172 couel. Probably a Keltic loan-word, cf. W. cawell.

No satisfactory explanation of the absence of diphthongisation in the forms $a$. 16-22, $\beta$. 11, 12 has yet been offered, and until such is found it must be assumed provisionally that there was no general law requiring diphthongisation after short vowels before antevocalic $-w$-. It remains to be seen whether the forms which show diphthongisation can be accounted for on any other hypothesis. Now one feature of this list is the large proportion of words in which one or more forms show syncope after -w-; among nouns usually in the N. Acc. sg., among verbs in the $2,3 \mathrm{sg}$. pres. (West Saxon), in the weak preterite etc. In regard to the syncopated forms there is a difference between the West Saxon texts on the one hand and the glossaries and Northumbrian texts on the other. The former regularly keep $-w$, the latter lose it $\dagger$ : e.g. W. Sax. peaw, reow, cneow, treow, hiew, Jeowdom, ceawlin, -iewde, eowde, niwlice; Ep.-trea, -streo, gliu; Cp. treo, hio, streo, glio, -leu, cneo-, treu-, siudi (cf. N.A. pl. treo: W. Sax. treowu) ; North, -uiu, eu, fre-helm, hleo-, riu-, caelin. The evidence of the Psalter is less consistent. On the one hand, as in West Saxon, we have heow, ðeowdom, eowde (substantive), eawde-eowde (pret.), cnew (pl.)—on the other hand fea, clea, סrea, freaberht, feanisse, treowyrm, while there is variation in סeow-ðeo, and treow-trew-treo (sing. and pl.).

Of all these forms those which show loss of $-u$ admit of an explanation most readily, e.g. Ps. N. sg. סrea, Ps. Cp. N. A. pl. treo. The parallel forms Cp. thrauuo Ps. סrea are most easily explained by supposing (with Sievers $\S 173,1$ ) that $-w$ was regularly lost before $-u$-, contraction subsequently taking place. The regular result would be N. sg. *prēea ( $\begin{gathered}\text { rea) }\end{gathered}$ beside A. G. D. sg. *prawce. Then in the dialect of the Glossaries prawu has been restored through the influence of

[^12]*prawce, while in the dialect of the Psalter the oblique cases have been remodelled on the analogy of *prēa e.g. N. A. pl. бrea (perhaps through an intermediate * prōa-ce). The same explanation will hold good for Ps. N. A. pl. clea beside Cp. clauuo (D. sg, clawe). So also N. A. pl. Ps. fea (also found in the Chronicle cf. p. 38) < ${ }^{*}$ fawu, either originally a neuter form or else based on feolu (cf. W. Sax. feawa beside fela). So likewise Cp. Ps. N. A. pl. treo may represent an earlier *tre $(w) u$. W. Sax. treowu etc. must be new formations on any hypothesis-at least if the first syllable is long (cf. Sievers, § 73. 1, 250. 2) -for the consistent syncope of $-i$ (e.g. in hiew, cetiewde) seems to show that the diphthongisation or at any rate the lengthening of the first syllable took place prior to the syncope of $-i$ (which was earlier than the syncope of $-u$ cf. p. 65). Such forms as N. sg. eowu (Gerın. ${ }^{*} a w i-z$ ) point to the same conclusion. The loss of $-w$ - before $-u$ - is further confirmed by forms like D. pl. feam which occur even in the early W. Sax. texts.

Diphthongisation with syncope of final -a after $-w$ - is found in the forms $\alpha, 2,6,7,8,9,12$ above. According to Sievers (§ 174.1) the regular forms are (N. A. sg.) crēo, rēo etc. arising through vocalisation of $-w$ - (consequent upon the syncope of final -a) and contraction, precisely as in Goth. pius, O.H.G. kneo; while in cnēow, rēow $-w$ is due to the analogy of the inflected forms. This explanation is made the more probable by the prevalence in the Psalter and West Saxon of forms like (N. A. sg.) snaw (cf. p. 49 f.). For the Psalter indeed it may be regarded as practically certain since treo, ঠeo can scarcely be new formations; and this raises a presumption for the same being true in West Saxon also, though forms without $-w$ do not occur here in the earliest texts. But this explanation of the N. A. sg. reo, treo etc. renders unnecessary the assumption that diphthongisation took place regularly in the G. sg. treowes etc. $\ddagger$ For just as

[^13]in the Psalter and in West Saxon -w has made its way from the inflected cases (G. D. sg. etc.) into the N. A. sg., so likewise in West Saxon the diphthong of the N. A. sg. may have made its way into the inflected cases, e.g. trēo-wes (*treu-wces) for *tre-wes, through the influence of trēo (treu). Ps. G. sg. סeowes etc. are to be explained in the same manner. Ps. D. sg. treo seems to be a new formation on somewhat different lines; probably it represents an earlier ${ }^{*}$ treu-ce from N. A. sg. *treu (cf. N. A. pl. ðrea, clea above). The G. pl. trea may have arisen at an early period from the (still uncontracted) N. A. pl. *tre-u, D. pl. *tre-um. The G. sg. tres is more difficult; it may come from the G. pl. trea or possibly it may be due to confusion between trēo and strēo. In the Psalter therefore the workings of analogy have levelled out the inflexion of $w a-$, $w \bar{o}$-stems in two different directions: on the one hand we have סeowes, סeowas etc. with - $w$ - preserved and infection of the vocalism from the N. A. sg., on the other we have in clea, ठrea, treo an inflexion without - $w$ proceeding directly from the N. (A.) sg.

Since the distinction in respect to the loss or retention of $-w$ - between the West Saxon texts on the one side, and the glossaries together with the Northumbrian texts on the other, holds good also for the syncope of $-\alpha$ - at the end of the first member of a compound-the evidence of the Psalter being here also inconsistent-we might suspect that the variation was due to the same causes (cf. $\alpha .3,6,8,9,10,11$, ß. 9). Yet the words of Bede II. 5 (Caelin rex Occidentalium Saxonum qui lingua eorum Ceaulin uocabatur) point to a dialectical difference (cf. Sievers, P.B.B. Ix. 299), and as the word is quite isolated, any influence from an uncompounded form is unlikely. W. Sax. ceawlin, reowdom etc. may come from *kaw-, *pew- with diphthongisation before -w- at the end of a syllable. It is to be remembered that (as in Gothic)

[^14]the syncope of $-a$ - in this position took place later than in an absolutely final syllable (cf. p. 77 f.). Whether the development in Northumbrian and in the dialect of the glossaries took place as in West Saxon, but with subsequent loss of $-w$-, is uncertain. There appears to be a loss of $-w$ - in a similar position in Ep. treule : snis etc. (cf. p. 38), but on the other hand $-w$ - is retained in Cp. gleaunisse. In the Psalter the regular forms are probably those without -w-, סeowdome etc. being due to the influence of the uncompounded form.

The greatest importance attaches to those forms which show syncope of $-i$-, viz. $\alpha .4,5,13,14,15, \beta .1,3,6$ and perhaps 5,7 ; for this syncope can not be regular unless the preceding syllable had previously undergone lengthening. Now with the exception of $\alpha .4,15$ and possibly the doubtful $\beta$. 5,7 these forms all belong to nominal or verbal stems which originally had forms with $-j a$ - or $-j \bar{o}$ - beside forms with $-i$-, the latter being partly of Indogermanic and partly perhaps of later origin (cf. p. 75 f.). Such $j a-(j \overline{0}-)$ forms are found in Ps. heg (: Goth. D. sg. hauja), W. Sax. D. sg. iege etc. (: O.N.G. sg. eyjar), glige (: O.N. gly), gliiman, nicealt, Ps. cegan etc. (cf. p. 55), Bede el-ge etc. (cf. p. 55), Cp. 175 tuigendi, Lind. Conj. getuiga (: O.N. tyjja, cf. Noreen, Urg. Lautl. p. 76). It is evident that-whether one takes Ps. heow, heg as compared with Goth. hiwi, hawi, or North. eu as compared with W. Sax. ieg-the irregularities in the inflexion of these stems have been levelled out by analogy in different directions. heg, ieg may without difficulty come from the oblique cases; on the other hand the forms with - $w$ - must come from the N.(A.) sg. This does not however necessitate our assuming spontaneous gemination of $-w$ - in *hiwi, *awi (* ${ }^{*}$ ewi) , cf. Sievers, $\S 73.2 \dagger$. There is the following alternative: through the influence of *hi-wi the G. sg. *hiu-jces etc. may have been transformed to *hi-wjos whence regularly *hiwwces $>$ *hiuwces $\ddagger$. In the same way the N. sg. *awi

[^15](cf. Zupitza, Germ. Gutt. p. 62) may have brought about a transformation of the A.G.D. sg. ${ }^{*} a u-j \bar{j}-$ (W.S. $\left.\overline{\tau e g e}\right)$ to ${ }^{*}\left(c-w j c e\left(>^{*} e^{2} w w c e\right)\right.$. Then by reaction from the oblique cases the double consonant thus arising before $-j$ - may have been introduced into the N.A. sg. *hiwwi, N. sg. ${ }^{*} e^{2} w w i$ (or perhaps ${ }^{*} e^{2} w w u$ after sibbce : ${ }^{*}$ sibbu etc., cf. p. 74 f .), whence after diphthongisation and syncope of $-i(-u)$ arose $\operatorname{hiu}(w)$, $e u(w)$. The other words of the same type, Cp. streo, glio, probably leu etc., may be explained in the same way, the absence of $-w$ being due probably to the same causes as its disappearance on the loss of interior -a- (cf. p. 45 f.). The irregularities of the W. Sax. verb cet-iewan seem to admit of a somewhat similar explanation. We have probably to start from Infin. ${ }^{*}-a u j a n-, 3$ sg. $\left.{ }^{*}-a w i\right\}(i)$ etc. Then contamination between the two stems produced on the one side a 3 sg . *-auwip, (whence -iewp), on the other an Infin. *-awjan (whence ultimately -ēowan). The Infin. -īewan may be due to the 3 sg . $-\bar{\imath} e w(e)\}$; the Infin. -ēowian (and the consequent partial transference to conjugation 2) to the 3 sg. -eoweð (a contamination of ${ }^{*}-e^{2} w i$ ) and -eowan) on the analogy of nereठ : nerian. With this is to be compared the verb strēowian which has preserved the regular preterite strewede. In the Psalter the unumlauted forms ( 1 sg . -eawu etc.) are an additional and serious difficulty. If the possibility that diphthongs did not undergo $i$-umlaut before immediately following $-j$ - (cf. p. 83) be left out of account, the unumlauted forms must apparently come from 3 sg . ${ }^{*} e^{2} w w e$ 厄
could take place. It is true that the type $-a-x w j a^{x}$ - seems to have given way in Germanic (cf. Kluge, P.G. r. p. 356) or at least in Gothic, Scandinavian and English, to the type $-a^{x} u-j a$ - (ef. Goth. *niuja- beside Sk. *navya-), but since the first type is phonetically possibie, it may have been restored at any time by analogy whenever (as here) words of the type $-a^{x} u-j a^{x}$ - had come to stand in close relationship with words of the type $\cdot a^{x}-w a^{x}-$. That the original type $-a^{x}-w j a^{x}$ - was regularly preserved in English (cf. Kögel, P.B.B. rx. 533 ff.) I do not believe; for in that case $h \bar{e} g, \bar{\imath} \bar{l} g$ etc. are inexplicable (cf. van Helten, P.B.B. xvi. 229 ff., xx. 507). The type $-a^{x}-w j a^{x}$ - appears to have been restored occasionally also in East Germanic (cf. Goth. usskawjaindau etc.).

The impossibility of Kögel's proposed hĕg, strĕgi'ð (with $g=j<-w$-) is shown by such forms as strewede, điwen (p. 41).
(: W. Sax. eower) on the analogy of strong verbs; the unumlauted 3 sg. -eawer etc. are doubtless late and to be compared with falleð, halder etc. The W. Sax. pret. iewde, participle -iewed, -iewd- are formations like the 3 sg . -iewp; Cp. -siowid, -siudi are exactly parallel.

In the W. Sax. forms (N. sg.) eowu (cf. Sievers, § 258, n. 2.), beowu (cf. weallipeow) the addition of $-u$ is probably late and to be compared with the similar phenomenon in N. A. pl. cneowu, treowu. The most reasonable explanation of the first word (Germ. *awi-z) is that it passed early into the inflexion of $\overline{0}$-stems; hence G. sg. eowe (cf. G. pl. eawa, p. 39) < $e^{2} w w c e . ~ C p . ~ e o u u i s t r a s ~ m a y ~ h a v e ~ e o-~(<* e ~ e r w w i-) ~$ in place of *ewi- through the influence of the uncompounded form. The syncope in Ps. A.G. sg. eowde (beside G. sg. eowdes) is difficult to explain, but the formation of the word and the exact nature of its relationship to O.H.G. ewit, G. awepi are not quite clear. It is not impossible that here also the uncompounded form may have had some influence. The other form leower ( $\alpha$. 15) is so obscure that it can scarcely count in this discussion.

There is one word which is free from syncope in the N. sg. viz. niowe, neowe, niwe etc. Ps. N. sg. neowe may be due to a contamination of the original form *niwi (<*niuja-) through the G. sg. *niuwces (neowes) for ${ }^{*}$ niujces (cf.. heowes p. 46). The change is of the same nature as that in hiu etc. but took place later (subsequent to the syncope of $-i$ ). The stem *niow- has also spread to the denominative verb. W. Sax. niwe etc. may be explained on the same hypothesis, but the rarity of forms with $-i e$ - seems to point to a partial retention of nǐwi.

Lastly Ep. cleouuae etc. ( $\beta .4$ ) demand consideration. These forms probably have -eo- for -iu-, a confusion not unknown in the glossaries (cf. Sievers, P.B.B. xviit. p. 414). The word may therefore be equated exactly with O.H.G. kliuwa. The appearance of -iuw- (<-iww-) in place of -iujmay be due to confusion between the stems *kliujōn- and *kliwina-; and the vocalism of W. Sax. cliewen may be due to the same cause.

To sum up briefly the results of the discussion we find that there is no evidence in the earliest texts to necessitate our believing that diphthongisation took place before intervocalic $-w$-. The various examples may all be due either to contraction through the loss of $-w$ - before $-u$-, or to the results of syncope, or to gemination of $-w$ - before $-j$-. In regard to such forms as meowle which occur in the later texts, it is preferable to assume that the diphthongisation is due to irregular syncope of $-i$ - (as in betra etc.). Ps. eowde (cf. p. 48 above) is possibly to be explained in the same way.

## II. After long vowels.

The same distinction which has been observed above between the West Saxon texts on the one hand and the Glossaries together with the Northumbrian texts on the other exists to some extent here also, the former tending to preserve final $-w$, the latter to reject it.

In the early W. Sax. texts we find the following forms with -w: spaw preterite (H.), row, rów (C.P.), snawgebland (Oros.), stow (Oros.), cew (once in C.) ; on the other hand -w is lost in : a, á, na, ná (all in C.P. Oros.), see, scé (Oros. H.), $\alpha, \notin ́$ (C.P. Oros. frequent), hi-red (H. 3), hio-red (C. 2), hie-red (H. 2, C. 2, Oros. 2). In the glossaries we find Ep. 529. a, 200 lytesna, 663. tiig (: O.N. Týr < * tīwa-z), 767. briig (: O.H.G. brīo), 1015. sli (: O.H.G. slīo)-Erfurt and Corpus showing the same forms in every case-probably also Cp. 986. gig (beside giw in later texts ; cf. Zupitza, Germ. Gutt. p. 203) ; on the other hand with $-w$ we find Cp. stou $(2,540) \dagger$. Among the Northumbrian texts the Alphabet

## + Certain forms whose history is obscure are omitted from the above list:

 (1) Ep. 1005 Ef. Cp. iuu is probably, in accordance with the general orthography of the glossaries, to be read i$w u-a$ new formation to be compared with Ep. thrauu. The same variation which exists between this form, W. Sax. $\bar{i} w$ and the form $i h$ in the Alphabet (eoh in the Runic poem) is found also in the other Germanic languages (O.N. ŷr, O.H.G. īwa, ìgo, ìha, O.L.G. ich etc., cf. Kluge, Wb. ${ }^{5}$ p. 84, Zupitza, Germ. Gutt. p. 74). The treatment of intervocalic $-\chi w$ - is not yet satisfactorily made out; but in the meantime the assumption of double stems ${ }^{*} i \chi(w)-$-, ${ }^{*} i w$ - seems to me less probable than that all these forms may come directly or indirectly from a Germ. *i$\chi$ ₹wi-z. (2) For Ef. 610 meu (Ep. men), Cp. meau, Cp. 135 meau, 955 me(a)u besidehas $t i$ (= Ep. tiig), Bede has tio-uulfinga (II. 16), L.V. has tiuuald (l. 207), tiouald (l. 334), snahard (1. 346), saeuald, saered, saegyth etc. The glosses in Bede C. have hra (: O.H.G. rēo). The Psalter has snaw, stow and eew (once) against ae (frequent-also (ee, aee), sae ( $s(e$ ), a, na; heoredas also probably belongs here (: G. heiwa-, O.H.G. hĩwo etc. cf. Zupitza, Germ. Gutt. p. 184, Noreen, Urg. Lautl. p. 21) $\dagger$.

The presence of the form $\bar{a}$ (: Goth. aiw) in West Saxon as well as in the other dialects seems to show that $-w$ which became final through the syncope of final $-a$ was regularly lost in all dialects alike, and that in W. Sax. spaw etc. -w has been re-introduced from forms in which no syncope had taken place (cf. Sievers, $\S 174.3$ ). There is no reason for supposing that the treatment of final -wa in English differed in principle from its treatment in other Germanic languages. In Old High German -w- became vocalic upon the syncope
 The same vocalisation has probably taken place in Goth. aiw, lew, gaidw etc. That the same development took place in English is made probable not only by the fact that the treatment of those stems in which - $w$ - was preceded by a short vowel was identical with their treatment in the continental languages (cf. p. 44), but also by the form gād (: G. gaidw) where the development ${ }^{*} 3 a i \delta w a>{ }^{*} 3 \bar{a} d u>3 \bar{a} d$ appears to be the only one possible $\ddagger$.

At the end of the first member of a compound the case is different, as appears from North. tio-, tiu- (beside the uncompounded $t i$ ) etc. After the syncope of $-a$ - (which was
O.H.G. mēh, O.N. már, double stems *maiұwa-, *maiwi- are likewise assumed (cf. Kluge, Wb. ${ }^{5}$ p. 262, Zupitza, Germ. Gutt. p. 66). But in view of s $\bar{a}, \bar{a}$ etc., meu, meau, must have $-w$ restored from the inflected cases on any hypothesis. Here again it seems to me that the evidence for a form without $-\chi$. is inconclusive.
$\dagger$ Ps. N. A. pl. bregas is omitted because the nature of its relationship to W. Sax. brewas (C.P.) is not quite clear (cf. Kluge, Wb. ${ }^{5}$ p. 52). As regards Ep. (473) grei etc. Kluge's explanation (Wb. ${ }^{5}$ p. 144) is by far the most probable.
$\ddagger m \bar{e} d$ on the other hand has probably undergone loss of $-w$ - before $-u$ (cf. p. 43 f.). The regular forms are N. sg. mēd G. sg. médwe (Chart. 42) etc.
later in this position, cf. p. 77 f.) - $w$ - was no doubt vocalised, and contraction seems to have subsequently taken place. L.V. sna-hard, if it is not due to the influence of the uncompounded $s n \bar{a}$, is probably to be explained by the loss of $-u$ - before $-h$ - (cf. p. 86); this must have taken place before contraction could set in.

The treatment of final -wi- is in Gothic and Old High German identical with that of -wa- (e.g. Goth. saiws, O.H.G. $s \bar{e} o<{ }^{*}$ saiwi-z). $\quad \bar{\alpha}, s \bar{\alpha}$ may obviously have arisen by the same process, but this does not apply equally well to the compound forms sae-red etc. These might indeed in themselves be regarded as new formations from $s \bar{\alpha}$, but the question 'what happens in the group -wi- when - $i$ - has undergone syncope?' affects a number of other words. Sievers (§ 173. 2 ) holds that $-w$ - regularly disappeared before $-i$-, a theory which makes forms like W.S. strewede etc. (cf. p. 41) very difficult to explain. For this he gives the following examples: i. $\bar{a}$, $s \bar{c}, h r \bar{c}<{ }^{*}$ aiwi- etc. ii. 3. sg. giere $\delta$, wiele $\overline{\text {, }}$ pret. gierede, wielede. iii. pyle $<$ Lat. puluinum. These series of forms must be examined separately. i. $s \bar{e} \bar{x}$ has no forms with $-w$ - in the early texts; some of its forms however (e.g. G. sg. sces) are certainly new. In $\bar{\infty}$ also the forms without -w- are far the most frequent. In West Saxon C. has N. sg. cew once (p. 124) against H. ce ; while D. sg. cewe occurs. C. $174=$ H. 175, C. $180=$ H. 181, H. 439 against far more frequent a (cf. Cosijn II. p. 38) ; in the Psalter N. sg. eew occurs in 18. 8 ; otherwise the forms without $-w$ are universal. It is obvious that analogy has been at work in these stems; if the loss of $-w$ in the N. sg. is regular, its absence in the remaining cases may be due to this. ii. The forms which need discussion in these verbs are: $a$. the Present Indicative 2, 3 sing.; $\beta$. the Imperative sing.; $\gamma$. the preterite ; $\delta$. the past participle. In West Saxon we find : a. -sireð (H.). $\quad$. C. gegierwe (p. 372) $=\mathrm{H}$. gegier. $\gamma$. giredon (Oros.), gered-on, ee (Oros.), gierdon (once in H., cf. Cosijn II. p. 162), smirede (C.P.) -si(e)rede (C.P. Oros.), -syred-e, -on (Oros.). In the Psalter: a. -gered, smirex. $\gamma$. gerede(s), herwdun, smirede. $\delta$. 1. uninflected form :
-gered, generwed; 2. inflected forms:-gered-, generwde. In the glossaries: $\delta .1 . \mathrm{Ep} .730$. gigeruuid Cp. gegeruuid, Cp . 676. gesmirwid ; 2. Ep. 534. bismiridae, Ef. bismirida, Cp. bismiride. In Northumbrian : $\gamma$. Ruthwell -3eredce. Lind. -smiride, -smiredon (gearuade etc. after Conj. II.). A comparison of these forms leads to the following conclusions: in $a, \gamma$ and $\delta 2$ the regular form of the stem was geri $(d)$-, $\operatorname{smiri}(d)-$ W. Sax. giere(d)-, smiere(d)-. The only exceptions are Ps. herwdun, generwde, and these may have their $-w$ from the $\delta .1$. forms *herwed, generwed; on the other hand gerede was kept because there was no -gerwed; so also in all probability with smirede. In $\delta .1$. the regular type is not quite so obvious. On the one hand we have Ps. -nerwed, W. Sax. -nierwed, on the other Ps. -gered, W. Sax. -giered, -si(e)red. Yet when the following series are compared: A. Ps. nearenissum (< Germ. *narwa-): *nerwan: -nerwed : -nerwde; B. Ps. gearu (<Germ. stem *3arwa-) : gerwende: -gered: -gerede, there is a prima facie case for supposing that the inflectional differences between the two series are due to levelling. It has already been suggested that -nerwde has taken its $-w$ - from -nerwed; it seems equally likely that -gered has lost, its $-w$ - on analogy of -gerede. In that case the regular uninflected form is preserved in Ep. gigeruuid, and the variation seen in Cp. gesmirwid: bismiridae is also regular and corresponds to the variation in (e.g.) -droefed: -droefde. This hypothesis is put forward also by Sievers $\S 408$, but it is obviously inconsistent with the theory that $-w$ - was lost before $-i$-. In order to arrive at a satisfactory explanation of these verbs it is necessary above all not to lose sight of the corresponding forms in Old High German. The Infin. $\operatorname{gar}(a) w e n$, pret. (3. pl.) garotun, part. -gar(a)wit, -garotēr may directly represent Germ. *3arwian-, *3arwiðun(p), *;arwið-. On the other hand O. Sax. pret. gerwida must be due to the analogy of the Present and of the uninflected participial form ( $\delta .1$.). Now there is obviously no difficulty in equating W. Sax. gierwan with O.H.G. $\operatorname{gar}(a) w e n$ or Ep. gigeruuid with O.H.G. gigar(a)wit; but what English form would regularly correspond to O.H.G.
garotun (< ${ }_{3}$ arwiðunp)? gearu corresponds to O.H.G. garo, but that does not prove that a form *gerudun (W. Sax. *gierudon) would regularly correspond to O.H.G. garotun, for in the first case the syncopated vowel was $-a$-, in the second it was - $i$-. So far as I can see there is no adequate reason for doubting that geredun (<*3eridun) may come regularly from Germ. ${ }^{*}$ arwiðunb and that $-e$ - (earlier -i-) may represent the vocalisation of palatalised $-w$ - which took place consequent upon the regular syncope of $-i$ - after a long syllable. iii. As regards the explanation of $-e<$ Lat. -ui- in pyle the difficulty is the same as in gerede and may be solved in the same manner. There is nothing therefore to prevent us from supposing that in sae-red etc. samprasarana of -wiand consequent contraction have taken place just as in tio-uald etc., but that here the -w-having previously undergone palatalisation, the result of samprasarana was a palatal vowel which in its earliest stage may be written $y$ but which probably underwent delabialisation at a very early date. The uncompounded $s \bar{\omega}, \bar{e}$ may likewise be due to contraction. After a consonant final $-y(-i)$ seems to have been syncopated like $-u$, e.g. perhaps in Ing (in the Runic poem) < *Ingu-i-z beside Ingui (Chron. 547) < *Ingwia-z ; but in compounds it appears to have been preserved (probably because samprasarana took place later in the case of -withan in the case of -wa-), e.g. Geneal. 1. 81 ingi-brand (cf. p. 58); L.V. ingu-burg represents a different form of the stem $\dagger$.

The results of the enquiry may be briefly summed up as follows: on the syncope of final $-a$ and of $-a$ - at the end of the first member of a compound, a preceding - $w$ - became

[^16]sonantal; in the former case this vowel subsequently disappeared; in the latter it underwent contraction with a preceding long vowel. $-w$ - was not lost before $-i$ - but became sonantal on the syncope of $-i$-, the result being a palatal (and at first no doubt labial) vowel. Before -u- on the other hand $-w$-was no doubt lost as after short syllables (cf. p. 43 f.), being restored in stōw etc. from the inflected cases.

## 5. The Loss of Intervocalic $-j$ -

According to Sievers (§ 176) -j-"when medial" is preserved "only occasionally between vowels as in frigea beside frēa; frïge (N. pl. masc.) beside frēo ; frēogan ; cīegan etc." This list is of course far from complete ; several examples of $-j$ - preserved have already been mentioned, e.g. D. sg. glige, iege ( p .46 ), and in particular it should be noticed that $-j$ in Germ. - $\bar{j} j a$ - is regularly preserved in verbs of the Second Weak Conjugation. Again one of Sievers' examples of contraction is in all probability to be struck out; frea and frigea cannot both be the regular equivalents of Goth. frauja, unless they belonged originally to different dialects. But there is no evidence for a dialectical difference in the treatment of $-j$-, freo-frige, ceঠ-cegan etc. occurring side by side in the same texts. frigea can scarcely come from anything else than a stem *fraujan-, but frea is quite capable of being otherwise explained. According to Van Helten (P.B.B. xv. 470 footnote) the Acc. sg. frēan comes regularly from *fra-un, the stem being *frawan- (*frawon-, van Helten) whence also O. Sax. fraho etc., O.H.G. frō (cf. also Kluge, Wb. ${ }^{5}$ p. 117). This loss of -w- in $u$-stems is supported by pēa beside Ep. (826) Ef. Cp. pauua, though on the whole I am more inclined to take frēa as having been originally an $a$-stem standing in the same relationship to *frawan- (O. Sax. fraho etc.) as O.N. Freyr to Goth. frauja. For the transference to $n$ flexion the case of W. Sax. סrēa may perhaps be compared, though here there has been also a change of gender.

Under what circumstances then was Germ. - $j$ - lost? As there is no evidence for any dialectic difference in this respect, the preservation or loss of $-j$ - can only depend on the nature of the preceding or following sounds. Now Ps. 3 sg . -ceð, pret. -cede, part. -ced beside 1 sg. -cegu, pl. -cegað, part. - cegendum etc. clearly point to loss of $-j$ - before $-i$ - a change which is exactly parallel to the loss of $-w$ - before $-u$ - (cf. p. 43). In W. Sax. gecieged (C.P.) beside cig(g)ende on the other hand, the consonant has been restored probably on the analogy of forms like gebieged. Another example of this change is afforded by the equivalents of Goth. gawi (D. sg. gauja). The following forms of this word occur in the oldest texts: N. sg. elge regio Bede IV. 19 ; in loco qui dicitur limingae Chart. 5 (Kentish) ; in loco qui dicitur liminiaee (Locative ?) Chart. 7 ; Acc. or D.sg. ad eastrege Chart. 36; D. or Loc. sg. in liminiaeae Chart. 7, easterege-eosterege-eostorege-eosterge Chart. 35 (all Kentish) ; cet elige Chron. 673 , on suprige Chron. 851. Derivatives of the same word occur in: in regione sudergeona Bede IV. 6 (M.B.N., suthriena C.), in regione eastrgena Chart. 18, suprigea Chron. 836, 855, suprigium Chron. 853. The regular N. sg. ${ }^{*} \frac{2}{j} e^{2} w i$ seems to have
 of the oblique cases (: Goth. gauja) ; the loss of $-j$ - which took place regularly in this form, seems to have spread subsequently, in Kentish at least, to the oblique cases; hence D. sg. -iaeae (and later -ge with contraction) in place of the regular ${ }^{*}{ }_{3} \mathscr{\infty} j \not \subset e . ~ W e s t ~ S a x . ~ D . ~ s g . ~-i g e ~ s e e m s ~ t o ~ p o i n t ~ t o ~ a ~$ retention of ${ }^{* \nu} \imath \imath j c e . ~ T h e ~ h i s t o r y ~ o f ~ L i n d ~ s t r e, ~ s t r e ́ ~(: ~ C p . ~ s t r e o), ~$ G. sg. strees was probably identical with that of Kentish -ge. The combination $-j i$ - was probably never original-cer, -ge, stre having ${ }^{*}-\bar{e} a j i$ for $-\mathscr{c}^{1} w i-\left(-e^{2} w i-\right)$ through the influence of forms with *- $\bar{e} a j a-$-but when the forms were established $-j$ - seems to have been regularly lost. This loss of $-j$ - must have taken place before the syncope of $-i$ - after a long syllable ; on the other hand in W. Sax. -gecieged, Ps. heg -jhas been preserved or subsequently restored through a repetition of the same process.

The contraction seen in frēo (<*frija-) may likewise be
regarded as a result of the loss of intervocalic $-j$. This word does not stand alone (cf. below); the forms of the verb beon are especially to be compared. The most remarkable point however in all these words is the history of the diphthong, and this requires notice in a separate section. The preservation of $-j$ - in N. pl. frige seems to show that the Conjunctive bio cannot regularly come from *$\ddagger i j a i$. The Indic. plur. bior on the other hand can scarcely be a new formation (cf. p. 57). Possibly the loss of $-j$ - after $-i$ - took place before back vowels (whether long or short) but not before diphthongs or front vowels (excluding $-i$ - of course).

## 6. The History of the Diphthong in frēo etc.

Sievers (§ 114. 2) says that contraction of "West Germanic $\check{\imath}+a$ seems to give $\bar{e} o "$ e.g. bēeot $<* i-l \imath \bar{a} t$, dēefol < Lat. diabolus, frēo<*fri(j)a, but in $\S 130$ holds that in unaccented syllables " -0 - has been retained in case of early contraction as in frīo, frēo st. *frijo-." The two statements are hardly consistent. Forms like bēot also must be left out of account in the present discussion, since the contraction there belongs to quite a different period (cf. p. 13). Now assuming that the diphthong in frēo has arisen through contraction the difficulty obviously lies in explaining the form of its second member. That at the time when contraction took place Idg. -0 - was still preserved in unaccented syllables seems to me improbable, since (except possibly before -m-) Idg. -o- appears everywhere in Germanic as $-a$ - is unaccented as well as in accented syllables. The assumption is also unnecessary, for dēofol undoubtedly shows a change $-i a->-\bar{e} O-$ (earlier $-\bar{\imath} o-$ which is preserved in Cp. 1457 -diobul). The oldest form of the diphthong in frēo seems indeed to have been -iu-, e.g. Leid. 153 friulactum (for -laetum), L.V. friumon, friubet; later -io-, L.V. frio-uini, Cp. 1218, 1224, 2104 frioleta( $n$ ) parallel to diobul. Ps. frea (87. 6) beside freolice (93.1) is probably due to that confusion between the diphthongs eo (io) and ea which is not very rare in the Psalter (cf. Zeuner
pp. 23, 50 efc.). In the verb the West Saxon texts have Infin. freogean (Oros.), Ind. pl. freog(e)ar (C.P.), 3 sg. frior (C.P.), pret. freode (Oros., Chron.). All these forms may be perfectly regular, coming from ${ }^{*}$ friujan (< ${ }^{*}$ frijōjan-), ${ }^{*}$ frīop, ${ }^{*} f r i ̄ u p\left(<{ }^{*} f r i j o ̄ p i\right)$ etc. In the Psalter the 1 sg. -frigu, pl. -frigað, part. pres. -frigende, pret. friode regularly correspond to the W. Saxon forms (cf. p. 10); but the pres. 3 sg. freað, friað seems to represent an earlier *fri-ap transformed through the influence of the forms with $-i \bar{j}$-, the original form freor being perhaps preserved in 36. 40. The same remarks apply to W. Sax. feogan, Ps. figar, figende, fiode, fiar. The pres. pl. fiar (34. 19, 96. 10) beside figar is perhaps only a graphic variant ; but the pret. fiede, beside fiode, may be due to the analogy of forms like -nerede. The substantive W. Sax. N.A. sg. freond, N.A. pl. friend, Ps. N.A. sg. pl. freond, likewise represents an earlier * frīund- (: O. Sax. friund, O.H.G. friunt) < ${ }^{*}$ frijōnd-. So also W. Sax. feond, fiend, Ps. fiond (: O. Sax. fund) which have probably been influenced by ${ }^{*}$ frīund-.

It is further probable especially on account of the forms in the Psalter that the verb beon belongs here. In the W. Saxon texts we find Infin. beon, beonne, Indic. pl. beor, Conj. beo, beon and bion, bionne, bioð, bio, bion (all in C.P., cf. Cosijn, iI § 136. 3). The Indic. pl. biað occurs in Cp. 180 and in the Leiden Riddle. The Infinitive occurs as bion in Chart. 37 and as bian in Chart. 41 (both Kentish). The glosses to Bede C. have Indic. pl. bior. In the Psalter the usual forms are Infin. bion, Indic. 1 sg. beom, pl. bioð, Conj. (?) bio (=esto); on the other hand we find Indic. pl. biar only three times, and bia (= esto) once, while the 1 sg . beam also occurs once, The few forms with -að may be due to assimilation to the normal ending of the Indic. pl., or-which is more likelythey may have undergone delabialisation through loss of accent (cf. p. 89); but the verb as a whole remains quite distinct in the Psalter from those verbs which show contraction through the loss of intervocalic $-h$ - (cf. p. 15 n .).

A similar diphthong seems to have arisen from contraction of $\bar{\imath}+a$ in Ep. 20, 657 bio-uuyrt, Ef. 20 biuyrt, Cp. 181,

1289 bio-wyrt, so also Ps. bio-bread (18. 11); on the other hand bia-bread (118. 103) and N. pl. bian (cf. W. Sax. beon) seem to have been affected by some non-diphthongal forms; possibly there was originally an $a$ - or $\bar{o}$ - stem (cf. O.N. by') beside the $n$-stem. Probably also the contraction $i+a$ took place also in unaccented syllables; thus L.V. inguburg (l. 19) seems to point to an earlier *ingwiu-: Tacitus' inguiomerus. This contraction did not take place when $-a$ was final, if ingui (Chron. 547) represents a Germ. *ingwia-z.

Now, if we are justified in considering $-\bar{\imath} u$-, whence later $-\bar{\imath} o-$, to be the normal form of the diphthong which arose through contraction of $\check{\imath}+a$, the change $\check{\imath} a>\bar{\imath} u$ here exhibited is analogous to the treatment of the Germ. diphthong au. The latter seems to have passed through the stage $\bar{e} u$ to $\bar{\alpha} \rho$, whence (by delabialisation of the second element) $\bar{x} a$ and later $\bar{e} a$ (cf. p. 29). So likewise North. N. sg. ea<* $\bar{e} u<{ }^{*} c h u$. The change $-\bar{e} u->-\bar{c} \rho^{-}$is due to assimilation, the second element being lowered to a level with the first, and is probably due to the lengthening of the first member and the consequent loss of stress in the second. Similarly in frīu, *dìutul etc., the second element has been raised to the level of the first.

## 7. The Verb W. Sax. ðreag(e)an, Ps. ðregan.

According to Sievers (§ 416, note 4) "the original inflection of $\delta$ ēagan....is more clearly perceptible in the Psalter than in W. Saxon." He then refers the forms of the Psalter to groundforms *ठraujan, *ठrauju, *дrauais, *ठrauda etc. This theory is objectionable because it necessitates the assumption of complicated processes of analogy in W. Sax.万reaagan etc. (in place of the regular *סrīegan). It is also by no means certain that the verb is to be immediately connected with O.H.G. drouuen, dreuuen; for the latter belongs not to the $j a-$ : ai- ( $\bar{e}-)$ class, but to the $j a-: i$ - class. The $-\bar{e}-$ of the Psalter forms may just as well represent $-\bar{c}^{4}$ - (by palatal umlaut) as $-\bar{c}^{3}$ - (by $i$-umlaut). Then Ps. Conj. סrege, part.
ðregende etc. will be identical with W. Sax. ðreage, ठreagende. The verb must then be a denominative like O. Sax. githrōon (Gallee, §46). The original form of the English verb will have been *prawōja- (based on *prawō-), whence * $\operatorname{rra(w)ujan}$ $>$ *brēajan which was originally common to all dialects. In the Pres. $2,3 \mathrm{sg}$. and in the preterite -awap (Ps. -eawap) etc. have been displaced by ${ }^{*}-\bar{e} a-a p$ etc. (whence - $\bar{e} a j$ ) etc. by contraction) through the influence of the forms with - $\bar{e} a j$ - (cf. Ps. frear etc. p. 57).

This explanation rests of course on the assumption of a stage ${ }^{*}$ brawuja-, ${ }^{*} l u \nexists u j a$ - intermediate between ${ }^{*}$ prawöja-, *lu $\bar{\sigma} \bar{j} a$ - and סrēagan, lufian. The medial - $\bar{o}$ - in all verbs of this type on its way to $-i$ - must have undergone shortening, delabialisation, palatalisation and raising. Both the palatalisation (with the consequent delabialisation) and the raising are probably due to the influence of the following $-j$-, but there is nothing to prevent us from supposing that the raising chronologically preceded the palatalisation. The shortening was perhaps the earliest of all, but this is uncertain, and hardly material.

If this explanation is correct it enables us to date approximately the loss of $-w$ - before $-u$-. Ps. סrege etc. show that the diphthong was already established before the operation of palatal umlaut, while on the other hand W. Sax. סreagean etc. show that $i$-umlaut was no longer operative when the diphthong came into existence.

## 8. The Treatment of Germ. - $a$ - before Nasals.

In the Epinal glossary - $a$ - in this position is always (with one exception) represented by $-a$ - (cf. p. 108). This however is either an orthographical peculiarity or (more probably) is due to a later and dialectic partial delabialisation of $-Q-$; for that the change of $a>\ell$ belonged to a much earlier period is shown by such forms as tor, gos, brohte etc., and especially by toeঠ, goes etc., which make it clear that the change of $\bar{q}>\bar{o}$ took place before the operation of $i$-umlaut, and consequently
that the change of $a>Q$, and probably also the loss of the nasal, must be still older.

In connection with this change there are two points which deserve consideration.
i. The treatment of $-\Omega$ - when affected by $i$-umlaut. In the Epinal glossary this sound is represented in the great majority of instances by -ae-, and similar forms occur also in Erfurt and Corpus, though here they are exceptional (cf. p. 112 ff .). In the remaining early texts $-e$ - is almost universal. Bede C. however is a notable exception. In this MS. -eappears only in the form penda; elsewhere -ae- ( $-\ell-)$ is written consistently. Thus I. 15 haengist, II. 5 haengest, III. 1 dęnises, denisi, III. 22 paente, raendles, raendili. In all these cases M. has -e-. So also in III. 21 middilengli, v. 24 middilaengli, where N. has -engli in both cases (so also B. in iII. 21), while M. has -angli. Now, since C. is a later MS. than M., the distinction between them in this respect would seem to be due to a difference of dialect. C. appears to be the work of a Southern scribe $\dagger$, and the dialect may possibly be identical with that of Epinal. It appears therefore that in certain Southern dialects the $i$-umlaut of $Q$ was an $c x$-sound ( $a^{5}$ ) during the eighth century. Yet the peculiarity of these dialects seems to have been merely that they preserved the sound longer than others, for its previous existence in West Saxon is shown by the preservation of -ce- (through metathesis of -r-) in cernan, berrnan. Ps. bernan, North. (Lind.) berna may also show later developments of the same sound (cf. p. 6). It is not unlikely therefore that $\alpha^{5}$ was originally a sound common to all dialects. At first this sound must have been labial, as is shown by the labial umlaut in Ps. fearende, tosaecendes (for ${ }^{*} t o$-scaecendes), and probably in beorende etc., but the delabialisation must have taken place

[^17]very early, and except in the dialect of the Psalter has left no traces $\dagger$.
ii. The change of $a>8$ was not originally limited to accented syllables. The former existence of $-\varrho$ - in unaccented syllables is shown by various cases of labial umlaut in the dialect of the Psalter, e.g. -weafran, fearan, fearað from earlier *-watron, *fargn, *farøp etc.

## 9. The Change of $a>\mathcal{C}^{1}$.

This change is common to English and Frisian. That it took place at a very early period is shown by the fact that it preceded the palatalisation of Germ. $k, 3$ and the operation of $i$-umlaut. It has also been suggested (p. 33) that it may have preceded the breaking of Germ. $-a$ - before $r+$ consonant. The change is found both in open and in close syllables, but the conditions for its appearance are not all equally clear.

In open syllables the change appears to have taken place when the following syllable originally contained $-i$ - or $-j$-, and certain of the various sounds which are represented in the oldest texts by $-c e-(-a e-,-\ell-)$. In the former case (before $i, j$ ) the change appears to have been universal, but here $\omega^{1}$ underwent a further change to $e^{2}$ by $i$-umlaut. Before $-c e-$ on the other hand there is considerable variation. The change ( $a>\omega^{1}$ ) is found (i) before final $-\omega$ when this corresponds to O.H.G. (final) $-a$ representing probably a Germanic non-final $-\bar{o}$-, e.g. in the A.G.D. sg. $\ddagger$ N.A. pl. of $\bar{o}$-stems : -faerae (Leid. Rid., Bede's Death Song), Ps. wrece, sweðe, W. Sax. wrece (C.P.) ; in West Saxon - $a$ - is usual, but this is probably due to the influence of the N. sg. (and N.A. pl.?) where $-a$ - was regular. So also in the N. sg. of $\bar{o} n$-stems, e.g. Cp. 25 raece, though in this case $-a$ - has usually been restored on the analogy of the A.G.D. etc.; (ii) before $-c e-<$ Germ. $-\bar{e}$-, e.g. fceder, heele; perhaps also in some adverbial forms, e.g.

+ Labial umlaut before palatalised labial vowels appears also in Old Norse, e.g. fiorgyn.
$\ddagger$ The Dative is included here because there is complete levelling between the Genitive and Dative in all classes of feminine stems.

Cp. hraeðe, Ps. hreðe; (iii) before -ce- < Germ. -e- before nasals, e.g. Cp. slaegen, gegaelen, gedaebeni, Ps. slegen, hefen, -scecen, -scepen. - $a$ - has frequently been restored in these participles through the influence of the Present stem, e.g. in Ps. agalene against Cp. gegaelen; in this case the difference in the initial consonant was probably a factor. In West Saxon the forms with -a- are very frequent; -scecen, -slcegen, -ðwagen, -hcefen are however frequently found in the oldest texts (cf. Cosijn II. $\S 98 \mathrm{ff}$.) $\uparrow$. On the other hand $-a$ - appears to be preserved before $-\infty<$ Germ. (final) $-a i$. The early West Saxon texts give the following examples: N. pl. masc. hrade (H. 5, C. 4) against hrcede (C. 1), late (H. 3, C. 3), ware (H. 1, C. 1), but struce (H. 1), strece (C. 1), cf. Cosijn II. § 38; Conjunct. -fare, -sace without exception, cf. Cosijn iI. § 98. The Psalter has N. pl. masc. strece, hreðe, probably on analogy of the N. sg. masc. etc. In regard to the treatment of Germ. - $a$ - in the G.D. sg. of $a$-stems there are not sufficient data for forming an opinion. The forms uilfares M., uilfaraes N., uilfares C., against vilfaeraes B. in Bede iII. 14 deserve notice.

In syllables which became or remained close after the syncope of final $-a,-e$, the change of $a>c^{1}$ appears to be general, except before a double consonant (cf. p. 31). Two points require notice: (i) The change does not seem to have taken place regularly after the syncope of final $-a$ - in the first member of a compound (cf. p. 31 f .). In $a$-stems indeed the type with - $\alpha$ - (arising through the influence of the uncompounded word) is almost universal (daeg-, staef-, bwr-, crcet-, stce $\overline{-}$, wcel- etc.); but in $\bar{o}$-stems we find such forms as sac-leas, sac-ful, car-ful etc. (beside cear- with diphthongisation through the influence of the A.G.D. sg. ceare); (ii) Germ. $-a$ - before two consonants-excluding of course combinations

[^18]of which the first member was $\chi, r, l$ or a nasal-when affected by $i$-umlaut appears sometimes as -e-, e.g. gest, gerestan, but more frequently as $-w$-, e.g. fuestan (: O. Sax. festian), heeftan (: Goth. haftjan), mastan (: O.H.G. mesten), hlcestan, rafsan (: O.H.G. refsen), woefs (: O.H.G. wefsa), befceðman, měðlan (: Goth. mapljan), cesc (: Lat. asciburgium) $\dagger$ etc. It is to be observed that the latter type is especially frequent in verbs of the First Weak Conjugation, in which $-a$ - must originally have been followed by $-i$ - in every single form. That the apparent absence of umlaut in such cases is due to its suppression through the influence of kindred words which originally contained no-i- (e.g. -farman for *-feठman through $f(e \gamma m)$, is rendered improbable by the regularity with which the new ablaut is preserved in the case of $-u-:-y-$ (e.g. ful : fyllan), $-\bar{o}-:-\bar{o} e-($ e.g. ofost : oefstan) etc. Identity of vocalism between the verb and the noun is practically limited to the forms with -ce-. It appears to me by no means impossible that -cc- may be quite regular here. Only guttural and semi-palatal vowels seem to have been affected by $i$-umlaut. The absence of umlaut in W. Sax. $d \bar{e} d, l \bar{e} c e$ etc. (as compared with mete, -weccan < *mce'ti, *woe¹kjan etc.) can only be explained on the hypothesis that $\bar{e}$ was too palatal for $i$-umlaut to take place, and consequently that between ${ }^{*} d \bar{e} d i$ and *moeti there was not only a quantitative but also a qualitative difference, the latter being less palatal. But it is quite conceivable that, at the time when $i$-umlaut began to operate, the vocalism of Germ. *fastian- etc. had become identical in quality with that of $* \partial \bar{e} \rtimes i-z$; for since the palatalisation of $-a$ - took place both in open syllables before -i- (e.g. in *mceti $<{ }^{*}$ mati-z), and in close syllables (e.g. in doeg), it is likely enough that when both conditions were present, as here, the palatalisation proceeded still further. The quality of $-c c$ - in * fustian may therefore have been so far palatal as to prevent the operation of $i$-umlaut. In gest, gerestan etc. the influence of analogy is easier to understand; *-rcestian may have arisen from *restu (: O. Sax. rasta), while *; cesti (whence North. gest) may have had the semi-palatal - $c e$ - (in place of the full

[^19]palatal sound) restored from the G.D. sg. where it was regular.

## 10. The Syncope of -u- after a long syllable.

The examples of $-u$ preserved in this position are very few in number.

1. The inscription scanomodu on an imitation of a gold solidus of Honorius (Wimmer, Runenschrift 87 f.). Wimmer's explanation cannot be right; -mödu may very well be N . sg. of an $u$-stem, since in Old Norse also -mörr in proper names is declined according to this declension (G. sg. Ásmóðar etc.). Since -o- is here expressed by the old letter, the changes in the Runic alphabet necessitated by the operation of $i$-umlaut cannot have been fully carried out; the inscription therefore must be very early, probably not later than the end of the sixth century.
2. Clermont flodu. This is an archaism, as is shown by the absence of $-u$ in unnez and probably also by its wrong insertion in $z^{i u p e a s u}$. A parallel is afforded by the 0 . Swedish inscription of Istaby, where, as a result of syncope, the old letter $a$ (*ansuz) is apparently used without any sound-value. Clermont cannot be much older than the end of the seventh century since it shows $\bar{e}<\bar{e}^{4}$ in -nez, $f<$ final $t$ in wylif and possibly loss of $-\chi$ - in -walus. The most that can be argued from flodu is that the loss of $-u$ cannot have taken place at any very distant date. Its usage here may be compared with the not unfrequent use of $-a e$ - for $-\bar{e}$ - in the MSS. of Bede (cf. pp. 4, 11). In a case such as the present the archaism would hardly be likely to remain in usage much more than half a century. The inscription of Kirkheaton has already eoh, but since the syncope here is irregular it is not certain that $-u$ after long syllables was already lost. A parallel case is - frid $(=-$ fri $p$ ) in Bede. The last letter in Bewcastle alcfripu is not certain.

The Bewcastle form olwfwolpu appears to be simply a guess (cf. Vietor, North. Run. p. 15). Ef. 440 aetgaru, which
is often given as an example, is far more likely to be a mistake for -gaeru, which is found in the corresponding glosses of Epinal and Corpus. This must represent an earlier *aiziu, and therefore does not come into consideration here.

On the other hand the form $\delta$ weoru ( $\mathrm{N} . \mathrm{sg}$. fem.) in the Vespasian Hymns (7. 8, 39) beside N. sg. ðuerh is very important. Since $\begin{array}{r}\text { weoran also occurs twice in the Psalter, }\end{array}$ there can be no reason for doubting that in this dialect Germ. $-\chi$ - was lost after - $r$ - before the operation of palatal umlaut. Again there is nothing to show that the loss of $-h$ -$(-\chi$-) after $-r$ - involved lengthening of the preceding vowel. Such was not the case with $-l h$-, though here the loss of $-h$ was subsequent to palatal umlaut (cf. p. 8). There is
 new formation. Unfortunately no other words of this type occur in the Psalter, but if the above explanation is correct we should expect ${ }^{*}$ furu, ${ }^{*}$ feoru, ${ }^{*}$ fioras ( ${ }^{*}$ feoras) as the equivalents of W. Sax. furh, feorh, North. firas respectively. In other words, it appears that $-u$ after a long syllable was retained in this dialect until after the loss of $-h$ - in the intervocalic group -rh- (-r $\chi$-).

There are several points which tend to support the supposition that $-u$ was retained till a comparatively late period.
i. In originally trisyllabic words with long first and short second syllable (especially io-stems) final -u was preserved while the penultimate was syncopated (cf. Sievers $\S 135)$. Thus, whereas in the other Germanic languages the N.A. pl. ${ }^{*}$ rikiu (< $\left.{ }^{*} r i ̄ k i \bar{o}\right)$ falls under the same treatment as the N.A. sg. ${ }^{*}$ rîkia (< $\left.{ }^{*} r i ̄ k i a\right)$, $-u$ being lost before the syncope of interior - $i$ - after a long syllable, in English the reverse was the case, ${ }^{*}$ rikiu falling under the same rule as
 was syncopated before the loss of final $-u$. So also with Ps. ernæ $\check{\text {, W. Sax. iermpo (Oros.) etc. } \dagger}$

[^20]ii. In consequence of the complete agreement between the glossaries in $a$, na, tiig, briig (cf. p. 49), we are bound to infer that the loss of final $-u<-w a$ was already complete in the original archetype MS. of Epinal-Erfurt. This MS. can scarcely have been written after 700 (cf. p: 154 ff ). So also we have syncope of $-u<-w a$ in $g \bar{a} d$, apparently also of $-y<-w i$ in $\bar{i} h$ etc. (cf. p. 49 n .), and probably of $-u<w \alpha^{x}$ (the final vowel being uncertain) in nēh, W. Sax. nēah (: O.H.G. $n \bar{a} h o$ ). A considerable interval must obviously have elapsed between the syncope of $-a$ and that of $-u<-w a$. But there is no necessity for assuming that there were two separate periods during which $-u$ was lost after a long syllable.
iii. $-u$ at the end of the first member of a compound was not syncopated before the loss of intervocalic $-h$-, as appears from Ps. neolecan, neoweste, W.S. nealcecan, neawest (cf. pp. 13, 17). The contraction seen in forms like L.V. tiouald may also be compared (cf. p. 50 f.). Not much stress can be laid on the Latin audubaldi (Bede M. II. 10, 11), since the name may be given in the form of some continental dialect (probably Langobardic) $\dagger$.

How far labial umlaut took place before the syncope of $-u$ in the dialect of the Psalter is very difficult to ascertain owing to the paucity of examples. *aplu- only occurs in the compound eappultun. The change $a>\omega^{1}$ in close syllables must certainly have preceded the loss of final $-u$. Hence the retention of $-a$ - before a double consonant in cat, $\operatorname{sac}(c)$ etc. (: O.N. kottr, Goth. sakleus) is perfectly regular. -ceseems to have been frequently introduced (e.g. perhaps in huet: O.N. hettr) on the analogy of $a$-stems such as sccet, gnoet which would also regularly preserve $-a$ - in the Plural. Whether analogy of the same kind but in the opposite direction has operated in Ps. gneat, -sceat (once each) is not
at least the type with $-u$ is practically universal in all dialects, the suggestion appears very bold; Jellinek's statement of the auslaut laws in English is however open to very serious objections on other grounds: cf. pp. $71 \mathrm{f} ., 74$.
$\dagger$ In any case the Northumbrian forms with $i$-umlaut, e.g. aeduini, come in all probability from a stem *auð $a$ - (: $\bar{e} a d n t$ nt.) with early syncope through the influence of the uncompounded form.
clear: more probably they are due simply to the influence of the plural.

On the whole it seems probable that the loss of final $-u$ did not take place very long before 650 , while the loss of $-u$ at the end of the first member of a compound can scarcely fall before 700 .

## 11. The Gemination of Consonants before $-j$ -

In regard to the gemination or lengthening of consonants before $-j$ - two questions have frequently been raised: (1) what was its chronological relationship to the syncope of $-a,-i,-u$ ? (2) did gemination take place also after long syllables?
A. The following is a list of the forms which are affected by (1), the form which according to Sievers ( $\$ 130$ note, $\S 134$ note) existed before the gemination, being appended in each case:
i. N.A. sg. secg, cyn, N. sg. m., N.A. sg. n. nyt < *sajja(z), *kunja, *nutja(z) †.
ii. N.A. pl. cyn, N.A. pl. n. nyt, < *kunju, *nutju.
iii. N. sg. hel, N. sg. f. nyt < *halju, *nutju.

According to Sievers the gemination (and the consequent loss of $-j$-) took place before the syncope of $-a,-u$. In secgu (Ind. Pres. 1 sg .) $-u$ will then be restored on the analogy of doemu, сweoru.
B. The following is a list of forms which are affected by both (1) and (2) :
i. N.A. sg. ende, rīce, N. sg. m., N.A. sg. n. groene < *andia(z), *rīkia, *зrōnia(z).
ii. N.A. pl. rīcu, N.A. pl. n. groenu, < ${ }^{*} r i ̄ k i u,{ }^{*}$ зrōniu.
iii. N. sg. f. groenu $<{ }_{3}$ rōniu.
iv. Ind. pres. 1 sg. doemu < *ठōmiu.
$\dagger$ Sievers writes ${ }^{*} s a_{3 j} j o z$, ${ }^{*}$ kunjo; I prefer to write $-a$ - for reasons given above (p. 14).

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12-2
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Sievers takes all these forms to have been originally trisyllabic and makes no mention of gemination after long syllables (cf. § 228). In the case of final $-i a,-a$ was lost, $-i$ remaining; but in the case of final $-i u,-i$ - was lost and $-u$ remained (§ 130 note, § 135).

Before passing on to a discussion of (1) it will be convenient to touch briefly upon (2). The evidence for gemination after long syllables in English is very scanty indeed. According to Kluge (P.G. I. ${ }^{2}$ p. 426) there is evidence for gemination only in the groups -ngj- and -lgj-, e.g. hrinčg้e, spync̆ğe, senčğan, bylčg้e (cf. Swiss rinken, bulke). The last form however (bylčge) cannot be admitted, for there is no evidence for the existence of such a word in Old English. The modern bulge is in all probability to be derived from O. French boulge (cf. Skeat, Etym. Dict. under Bulge). Again the examples with -ncg-prove nothing since $-g$ - after a nasal was an explosive; Kluge's supposition that it was a spirant is based on an incorrect statement (cf. p. 80 n .). The change $g>g$ is obviously parallel to the change $k>c ̌$ and like it may be due to a following $-i$ - (or any other front vowel $\dagger$ ) just as much as to $-j$. Lastly it may be observed that in forms like ondettan (which are not mentioned by Kluge) shortening may have preceded gemination. On the other hand there are strong arguments against the supposition of gemination after long syllables. Germ. $-\chi$ - is lost after long syllables in Cp. scyend (beside Ep. scyhend), W. Sax. hean etc., but -hh- arising from Germ. $-\chi^{-}$after short syllables is preserved, e.g. in W. Sax. hliehhan. Again if the sound-shifting in O.H.G. wulpa is an argument for the occurrence of gemination in High German, the universal preservation of the spirant (wylf, wylfe, gelefan etc.) is an equally strong argument against its occurrence in English. Again the historical development (in later English) of forms like byrgan, wyrgan, shows conclusively that $-g$ - does not here denote a palatal double explosive arising from gemination. Lastly how is the difference between rīce-cyn (N.A. sg.), rīcu-cyn (N.A. pl.) to be explained on this
$\dagger$ Cf. Ep. 203 gimaengiungiae, where -giae is used to denote -ğa.
hypothesis, for the first syllable would be long in both series alike if gemination had taken place? The evidence therefore seems to me to be entirely against the supposition that gemination took place after long syllables in English. At an earlier (Germanic) period $-j$ - may of course have occurred after long as well as after short syllables, but the variation of $-i$ - and $-j$ - according to the length of the preceding syllable must have been established in English before gemination took place.

Turning now to the discussion of (1), Sievers' theory, which offers a simple explanation of the forms in the series A, has of late years been generally abandoned, e.g. by Streitberg, P.B.B. xiv. 183 ff., xv. 494 ff., Urg. Gr. p. 148 f.; Jellinek, P.B.B. xv. 291 ff., xvi. 323 ff.; van Helten, P.B.B. xvi. 272 ff.; Kluge, P.G. p. 368, P.G. ${ }^{2}$ p. 427 f. I gather from P.B.B. xiv. 184 (footnote) that it has been given up even by Sievers himself. The causes for its abandonment are various; so also are the theories which have taken its place.

Streitberg (P.B.B. xiv. 183 ff.) rejected Sievers' explanation on the ground of Kaufmann's gemination theory. But since in the meantime Kaufmann's theory has itself been found to be untenable (cf. Sievers, P.B.B. xvi. 262 ff.) and has been generally abandoned (e.g. by Streitberg himself in Urg. Gr. p. 148) this objection no longer holds good. A second reason is brought forward by Streitberg in P.B.B. xv. 493 f. and retained by him in Urg. Gr. l.c. (cf. Kluge, P.G. l.c.). That the West Germanic lengthening of consonants is later than the syncope of $-a$ is, he says, proved by the existence of such doublets as O.H.G. acchar : ahhar, apful: afful. This explanation obviously rests on the curious assumption that the gemination before $-j$ - and the gemination before $-r$-, $-l$-, were necessarily contemporaneous. But there is absolutely no evidence for early gemination before $-r$ in English. According to Streitberg (Urg. Gr. p. 150) this gemination was confined to the Germanic tenues. Now in the early West Saxon texts gemination of Germ. $k, t, p$ (as of all other consonants except Germ. $z, r$ ) is universal
after short open syllables before $-j$ - ; on the other hand $-c c r$ occurs once in geliccran (H.) against countless examples of -licr-, -ttr- occurs in āttres ( $\bar{a} t t o r$ ), wettre, snottra(n), snyttro, bettra, bettrung, rylttre (cf. also unnyttre, unnyttra), while -ppr- does not seem to occur. The examples are given at length by Cosijn (I. pp. 172, 193). With regard to the forms with -ttr-it is to be observed that parallel forms with -tr- are more frequent in every case except snottra, snyttro; weettre occurs only once. It is also to be noticed that gemination before $-r$ - in these texts is not confined to $c, t$ but affects $-d$ - also (cf. Cosijn, I. p. 173), and $-h$ - (cf. Sievers, § 229). The lateness of the gemination is shown by the fact that in most of the examples the group -ttr- etc. has either arisen through syncope (e.g. in bettra) or follows a long syllable. Gemination of $-h-(-\chi-)$ at all events did not take place before the loss of final $-u$, if N.A. sg. tēar comes from Germ. ${ }^{*} t a \chi^{r} u$ (cf. Lind. D. pl. teherum with the stem of the oblique cases). So also the irregular syncope in betra, bettra can scarcely be older than the regular syncope of $i$ - after a long syllable (which was later than gemination according to Streitberg). But the form cecer is conclusive against the supposition of early gemination before $-r$-, for the change $a>w^{1}$ in this word shows that the syllable was close, i.e. cec-er, in other words that the division of syllables was ${ }^{*} a k$-r $a^{x}$-. The N.A. sg. is of course a new formation. The regular form would be *acor $(<* a-k r)$. The forms with gemination can easily be explained ; e.g. (G. sg.) snot-res has been partly displaced by sno-tres (in which form gemination is probably regular), whence snottres, through the influence of sno-tor. This shows also why gemination is especially frequent after long syllables and in forms which show syncope.

With regard to the gemination in ceppel (opl) the case is different, for here we have forms with $-a-$ e.g. N. pl. $a p(p) l a$ beside forms with $-(e-$, e.g. $\operatorname{cep}(p) l a s, \operatorname{cop}(p) l e s$. But is the word an $a$-stem, as Streitberg assumes? His hypothesis is not favoured either by O.H.G. N.A. pl. epfili or by O.E. N.A. $p \mathrm{l} . a p(p) l a$, nur again by Ps. eappultun. Kluge (Wb. ${ }^{5}$
p. 15) proposes a Gothic *aplus which would of course be fatal to Streitberg's theory, to which the priority of gemination to the syncope of $-i,-u$ is essential. Whatever may be the explanation of these forms it is not wise to lay much stress upon them; for there is no other example of gemination before - $l$ - in the early West Saxon texts. Tyttling, tyttla in the East Anglian genealogy (O.E.T. p. 171) seem to be examples, but here there has probably also been syncope $\dagger$.

It appears to me therefore that the evidence in favour of the supposition that gemination took place before -l- contemporaneously with the gemination before $-j$ - is of the most doubtful character, while the evidence against the same being the case before $-r$ - is conclusive. This objection therefore against Sievers' explanation of $\sec g$, cyn etc. is not valid.

Jellinek (P.B.B. xv. 295) subscribes without discussion to the views expressed by Kaufmann, P.B.B. xiI. 539 (footnote). In the passage quoted Kaufmann says that the development of *saj3joz, *kunnjo to sec弓, cyn is only intelligible on the hypothesis that $-j$ - disappeared before the apocope of -o-. This hypothesis he rejects because numerous examples of the preservation of $-j$ - occur in Old Saxon and Old High German, although Anglo-Saxon itself furnishes no conclusive evidence on the point. Again he says that the umlaut in the N.A. sg. must under any circumstances be due to the

[^21]analogy of the oblique cases. This last statement is incorrect, for it is quite conceivable that a consonant or group of consonants might undergo a palatal affection, which in turn could affect the vocalism of the preceding syllable in a manner similar to that seen in O.N. gestr (Kock, P.B.B. xiv. 73 f.). But Kaufmann's entire objection rests on an assumption which is to be rejected in principle, namely that because two or more languages show a sound-change, the effects of which are in some cases identical, this sound-change must therefore have taken precisely the same form in the several languages, and that consequently those features in which a difference occurs must necessarily be due to the operation of analogy. The results of gemination before $-j$ - are found in English (Frisian) and in High and Low German. In Old Saxon and in early Old High German the geminated consonant is followed by $-i-(-e-)$, not however in even the oldest English. The absence of $-j$ - in English and the absence of any effect produced by it. upon a following vowel show that its disappearance took place earlier here than in High (and Low) German. In fixing the date of this disappearance relatively to the operation of other sound-changes, e.g. the syncope of $-a,-u$, the most weight must obviously be attached to the evidence of English itself. The evidence of the other languages can at best only furnish an analogy. If the evidence of the forms which come under consideration in the various languages agreed, there would be some reason a priori for supposing that the chronological sequence of events was not very different; if on the other hand, as is actually the case, the majority of these forms exhibit very material differences, it is scientific to enquire whether the development of the sound-laws was the same in these various languages, and not to assume that the forms of a language $\alpha$ are necessarily new formations, and that regularly they would appear in the same form which they bear in a language $\beta$.

I hold therefore that not one of the objections hitherto brought forward is conclusive. According to Sievers' theory the torms in each of the series A $1,2,3$ are perfectly regular,
and the attractiveness of this simple explanation cannot be denied. Before going further it will be convenient to examine the various theories which have been substituted for it .

Streitberg's explanation is as follows. In A 1, secg, cyn come regularly from *secgi, *cynni, the $-i$ being lost contemporaneously with -i in *;iest $(i)$. *secgi, *cynni came from Urgerm. ${ }^{*} s_{j} i z$, ${ }^{*}$ kunim with introduction of the geminated consonant from the oblique cases (P.B.B. xiv. 188, Urg. Gr. § 146, Anm. 2). In A 3, sib comes from * sibbi for * siti (<Urgerm. *sitio), with -bb- from the oblique cases (P.B.B. xv. $501 \mathrm{f} ., \mathrm{Urg}$. Gr. § 175 ). In view of Goth. sibja etc. this explanation can hardly be considered satisfactory. The forms of A 2 (N.A. pl. cyn etc.) are apparently not explained by Streitberg. But if sib cannot come regularly from Germ. *sitjō, cyn must also be a new formation-possibly due to productive syncretism with the N.A. sg. But what form would Germ. *sibjō, *kunjō-supposing such forms to have existed-regularly take in Old English? The evidence of the language itself gives us no reason to suppose that they would appear as *sibbe, *cynne.

Van Helten (P.B.B. xvi. 273 ff.) explains the forms in A 1 as follows: secg etc. come from ${ }^{*} s_{3} i$ (*seji) in the same way as by Streitberg's theory, but ${ }^{*} \operatorname{saj}_{j} i\left({ }^{*} s e_{j} i\right.$ ) was the regular result of Germ. ${ }^{*}$ sajjoz. Later however (P.B.B. xxi. 475 ) he has adopted Streitberg's theory in toto. In A 3 he held (P.B.B. xvi. 279) that sib was a new formation in place of ${ }^{*} \operatorname{sibbi}$ which came regularly from Germ. * siठjō (cf. above). Later however (P.B.B. xxi. 474) he has adopted Streitberg's explanation here also. In A 2 cyn was explained in the same way as sib (xvi. 279).

Jellinek's explanation differs widely from the two preceding. The forms in A 1 (secg, cyn) are new formations from the oblique cases on the analogy of domes : dōm, etc. The regular forms would be ${ }^{*}$ seze ${ }^{*}$ cyne (P.B.B. xV. 296, xvi. 332 ff .). In A 3 the regular form would be *sife : Goth. sibja (P.B.B. xv. 296), because the gemination was later than the loss of $-u$ (xvl. 328 ff .); sib is a new formation from
the oblique cases on the analogy of äre : $\bar{a} r$, bende : bend. The forms in A 2 (N.A. pl. cyn, etc.) are apparently not discussed, but on Jellinek's hypothesis they must obviously be new formations. The regular forms would presumably be *cyne, etc.

Jellinek's explanation of sib must be considered in the light of his assumption (P.B.B. xvi. 331) that the loss of $-u$ after a long syllable was contemporaneous with the loss of $-a$. I have already (p. 65 f.) stated reasons for believing that it was very considerably later. But Jellinek considers not only N. sg. sib, nyt (and presumably N.A. pl. cyn, nyt) to be new formations, but also (xv. 296) N. sg. f. grēnu, N.A. pl. rīcu, grēnu (and presumably 1 sg. secgu, d亠̄етmu)-in short every single English form in which $-u$ preceded by $-j$ - or $-i$ - is supposed to have originally existed. But when all the possible examples of a rule are exceptions, is it not more reasonable to suppose that the rule itself is wrong? Again if gemination was later than the syncope of $-i$ as Jellinek supposes, why did not gemination take place in originally trisyllabic words which preserve their third syllable? That this did not take place is shown by the loss of $-h$ - in hēan etc. and by the preservation of the spirant in gelēfan etc. (cf. p. 68).

These arguments seem to me to tell strongly in favour of Streitberg's hypothesis that gemination took place before the syncope of $-i,-u$. On the other hand the agreement of Goth. sibja, halja and O.N. (N.A. sg.) Sif, hel against Goth. mawi, O.N. N. sg. mér, ylgr Acc. sg. ylge $\dagger$ supports as strongly Jellinek's ${ }^{*} \operatorname{sit}_{\mathrm{j}} \bar{o}\left({ }^{*} h a l j \bar{o}\right)$ against Streitberg's ${ }^{*}$ si$i \bar{i}$ (*halī). So also the probability of productive syncretism with the N.A. sg. in (N.A. pl.) cyn seems to me to be very slight in view of rīce: rīcu and of the faithfulness with which the contrast betweeu geoc: geocu, word : word is preserved in the early texts; while, apart from productive syncretism, I do not see what origin N.A. pl. cyn can have had unless it is regular. The probability therefore seems to me to be very strong that in sib, cyn etc. we must see the regular Old English repre-
$\dagger$ The corresponding Old Saxon and Old High German forms are obviously inconclusive.
sentatives of Germ. *sit̄jō, *kunjō. From these groundforms, whence (after shortening of the final syllable and gemination) *kunnju, *sibbju, three courses of development are phonetically possible. 1. $-j$ - might become sonantal after the newly lengthened syllable. 2. $-j$ - might remain consonantal and be retained until $-u$ was syncopated. 3 . $-j$ - might remain consonantal and disappear before the syncope of $-u$. In the first case we should regularly have *cynnu, *sibbu parallel to rīcu. This would of course account for 1 sg . secgu, but on this little stress can be laid since the restoration of $-u$ in the 1 sg. was universal, e.g. (Ps.) arisu, bebiodu. In the second case we should have ${ }^{*}$ cynni (*cynne), *sibbi (*sibbe), of which we find no examples in English. In the third case we should regularly get $\operatorname{cyn}(n), \operatorname{sib}(b)$, the forms which actually occur, the development being *kunnju > *kuńnu > *kynnu >cyn(n), perhaps partly as in Lithuanian (cf, Brugmann, Gr. I. ${ }^{2} \S$ 315), though there gemination and unlaut are wanting $\dagger$.

For these reasons I consider that Sievers' explanation of N.A. pl. cyn, N. sg. sib is far preferable to any that has since been proposed. Is his explanation possible also in the case of the N.A. sg. secg, cyn-in other words is it possible that N.A. sg. secg, cyn may come directly from *sajja(z), *kunja in the same way that sib, cyn come from *sitju, *kunju? I have tried to show that none of the objections hitherto brought forward will hold good. On the other hand such forms as N.A. sg. mene, dile, pile (beside O.H.G. menni, tilli, dilli, cf. Kluge, P.G. ${ }^{2}$ p. 427) give clear evidence for the existence of forms with $-i$ - during the period when gemination took place; it has further already been shown (p. 46 f.) that
$\dagger$ In Old High German and Old Saxon on the other hand $-j$ - seems to have been retained and on the loss of $-\iota$ vocalised according to (2). This stands quite in harmony firstly with the retention of $-i-(e)$ before the endings $-e s,-e,-o,-u m$ etc. in these languages ; the relationship O.E. cyn ( $<{ }^{*}$ kynnu ) :O. Sax. kunni ( $<{ }^{*} k u n n j u$ ) is then identical with that of O.E. cynnces : O. Sax. kunnies; and secondly with the fact that $-u$ seems to have been lost at a relatively earlier period than in English, as is shown by *rikiu falling under the same treatment as ${ }^{*}$ rikikia; the relationship O.E. cyn $\left(<{ }^{*} k y n n u\right.$ $\left.<{ }^{*} k u n n j u\right)$ : O. Sax. kunni $\left(<{ }^{*} k u n n j u\right)$ is therefore parallel to that of O.E.

there is reason for believing that forms similar to Goth. hiwi, gawi once existed in English. No objection can therefore be taken to Streitberg's hypothetical *saji, *luni. Yet I fail to see why these forms should necessarily contain Idg. -iand represent Urgerm. ${ }^{*}$ sajiz, *kuni. For if, as Streitberg supposes, the syncope of $-a$ took place before gemination, then ${ }^{*}{ }^{2} a_{3 j} a_{z}$, *kunja would regularly produce ${ }^{*}$ saji, *kuni. The $-i$ arising thus from $-j a$ would by no means necessarily undergo the same treatment as the $-i$ in ${ }^{*}$ rīli (< ${ }^{*}$ ritkìa), since in the latter case the preserving influence of the nebenton must be taken into account. The evidence for the existence of Urgerm. $i$-forms seems to me inadequate, especially in the case of neuter substantives; for the assumption that O.N. kyn etc. represent Urgerm. *kuni etc. is rendered improbable by the consistent presence of umlaut. In the case of adjectives there is more probability in view of the forms with long stem, e.g. Urn. -ma $r i r$, Goth. -mers, O.E. $-m \bar{e} r \dagger$, but by the same argument the universality of -ia (cf. Urn. arbija, Tune) in neuter substantives tells here in favour of $-j a$ against $-i$. . The loss of the labial in Goth. nipjis etc. beside the feminine O.H.G. O.E. nift etc. may also be compared.

So far as I can see the only means of deciding whether gemination before $-j$ - did or did not precede the syncope of final $-a$ is afforded by the following consideration. Intermediate between Germ. ${ }^{*} s a 3 j a(z)$ and O.E. secg there must have existed a form with -ce-. But there is reason to suppose that no change $a>e$ took place before the syncope of final $-a$ (cf. p. 33 n .). Therefore if we are to believe that gemination preceded the syncope of final $-a$, we must suppose the develop-
 -a hypothesis which is at least exceedingly improbable, especially in such forms as W. Sax. gied (gid, gyd: Ef. Cp. geddi Instr. sg.), in which diphthongisation appears to have taken place after the change $a>c$ but before the operation of umlaut.

[^22]It seems to me probable therefore that Streitberg is right in holding that gemination before $-j$ - took place after the syncope of final $-a$. His theory in regard to the historical development of ${ }^{*} s_{j} i$, with the introduction of the geminated consonant from the oblique cases, may be accepted without reserve ; the history of the stems in -auja-: -awi (p. 46 f.) furnishes an exact parallel. On the other hand Streitberg's assumption that *dili (dile), *saji, *kuni contain Idg. -iseems to me unnecessary. I prefer to regard these forms as the regular representatives of earlier *ðilja(z), *sajja(z), *kunja; so also *hiwi, *strawi etc. < *hiuja, *strauja.

When $j a-, j \bar{o}-(i a-, i \bar{o}-)$ stems serve as the first members of compound words, we find two types among those which contain a long stem-syllable; on the one hand forms like L.V. hildi-berct, Leid. Rid. uyrdicraeftum (for * uyndi-), on the other forms like M. haeth-felth, L.V. coen-berct. The former type doubtless contains Idg. -io- as in Inguiomerus (Tacitus). In the latter series forms like haeth- might be due to the endingless Nom. sg. of the uncompounded form and consequent confusion with $i$-stems. But this cannot be the case with such forms as coen-; I do not see how these are to be explained unless they have Idg. $-i$. In $j a$-stems with originally short stem-syllable also we find two types, on the one hand Bewcastle cyniburuj, Lancaster cynibalp, L.V. cyniberct etc. (the usual type in Bede and in Liber Vitae), on the other Bede cynuise, L.V. cynhelm, Geneal. cynreow, Chron. cynric etc., with which agree ecg-frid, uyn-bald etc. in all texts. Now according to Sievers (P.B.B. xir. 489 ff., cf. Streitberg, xv. 497) cyni- represents an earlier *kunjo-, the reduction of $j a>i$ in this position having preceded the gemination of consonants before $-j$-. ec $g$-, wyn-, cyn- etc. must then be new formations due to the influence of the uncompounded forms. This explanation seems to me unnecessary, for the loss of Germ. - a- at the end of the first member of a compound took place later than when $-a$ was absolutely final, as is shown by the preservation (with contraction) of $-u$ -(<-wa-) after long vowels (cf. p. 50 f.), and probably by the preservation of $-a$ - before $-l$ - in the same position (p. 31, cf. 62).

A good parallel is afforded by Gothic where final - $a$ - is usually preserved in compounds (cf. especially such forms as lubja-leis, wadja-bokos, alja-leiko etc. Streitberg, Urg. Gr. § 145) though elsewhere it is everywhere syncopated. In view of Goth. lubja-: dags etc., Sievers' explanation of Urn. kuni-mundiu beside helðar in the inscription of Tjurkö-namely that here also $-i$ - is an early reduced form of $-j a-(-j 0-)$-seems to me highly improbable. The only other possible explanation of kuni- is that it contains Idg. $i$-, as in Lat. mediterraneus etc., and the same explanation will hold equally well for L.V. cyni-. In that case cyn-lelm, ecgfrid etc. may regularly represent Germ. ${ }^{*} k u n j a-$, ${ }^{*} a_{3} j a$-, and the relationship of cyni-: cyn will be identical with that of coen- : hildi-. It is probably a mere accident that forms with $-i$ - do not occur among the Germanic names in early Latin writers, though the type with $-j a-(-i o-)$ was doubtless more frequent. For the parallel case of -u- beside -wa- we have a probable example in badu-hennae (Tacitus, Ann. iv. 75). Forms like heri-berct etc. may of course contain either Germ. *hari- or Germ. *harja- (cf. Tac. Charioualda).

## 12. The Phonetic Value of $-g$-.

I. Initial. According to Sweet (H.E.S. §541 ff.) $g$ - in this position denotes (according to the nature of the following sound) a guttural or palatal explosive-the latter representing both Germ. j- (before palatal vowels and diphthongs) and Germ. $j$-. This theory he supports with three arguments (§547). 1. "The W.S. change of $\dot{c} e$ into $\dot{c} i e$ is the result of the almost inevitable development of an open front glide, which we may roughly call $j$, between the stopped front cons. and the vowel, and if we assume that in $\dot{g} e$ the $\dot{g}$ was also a stopped cons. the change into $\dot{g} i e$ is perfectly analogous and intelligible, while that of ${ }^{*} j e$ into ${ }^{* j} j e$ is unmeaning. The same argument applies equally to $\dot{g}$ from Gmc. $j$ : if giung meant simply jung, the development of a $j$-glide would be as unintelligible as that of a $w$-glide in such
a word as willa, the open $j$ and $w$ being themselves practicaily glides." 2. "Again L.V. writes E'udgar, Aldgisl etc. but if the $g$ were really an open cons., we should expect to find the preceding $d$ s become $t$ (524), which is not the case." 3. "Another argument in favour of the change of $j$ into a stop is the loss of the Runic $j$ and the use of gefu-which must certainly have originally denoted a stop-to represent both Gmc. $j$ and the O.E. fronted Gmc. g."

1. The question whether diphthongisation after $j$ - (i.e. a vowel with consonantal function) is or is not possible is one which can only be decided by practical phoneticians. I must confess however that I feel a certain amount of scepticism in regard to arguments of this kind. At all events the objection does not hold good against taking $g$ - as a palatal spirant.
2. It is true that in Liber Vitae $-t$ - is usually written for $-d$ - before voiceless spirants (e.g. eatfrith, altfrith, titfrith,
 (e.g. ualdfrith, aldðryth, blaedsuith) ; so also before voiceless explosives (e.g. eatcume, altceorl), though names beginning with a voiceless explosive are very rare in the second member of a compound. But this only proves that $-d$ - became voiceless before a following voiceless consonant. It has never, so far as I am aware, been suggested that $-g$ - in -gar, -gisl represents a voiceless spirant. I can see no reason for supposing that the change $d>t$ should take place before a voiced spirant or semivowel (cf. ulduulf, earduulf etc.).
3. As a matter of fact the Runic inscriptions contain no word with initial Germ. $j$ - (nor indeed with Germ. $-j$ - in any position except possibly Clermont twöejen), though Latin (consonantal) $i$ - is expressed by the old 3 -letter in Clermont зiupeasu, Bewcastle zessus. The Germanic letter appears three times in abcdaria, each time in a different form, and none of these forms occurs outside England. This might appear to show that the letter had fallen into disuse. It seems to me very probable however that the letter which is found in the inscriptions of Dover (gislheard) and Thornhill 3 (gilsuib), representing palatalised Germ. $\boldsymbol{j}^{-}$- in both cases, may be a form of Runic $j$. This form does not occur indeed in
any of the abcdaria, but it is precisely the form of the letter $(j) \bar{\sigma} r(a)$ which appears in the Swedish inscriptions of Björketorp and Stentofta, as well as in some of the earliest Scandinavian inscriptions in the shorter alphabet (e.g. Vatn, Kallerup, Snoldelev). At all events it is no doubt true that $j$ - and $\check{j}$ - had fallen together before the appearance of the earliest extant texts in the Latin alphabet, for otherwise we should have had some evidence for a difference in the representation of the two sounds; but Sweet's statement that the letter gefu must originally have denoted a stop is petitio principii. $\dagger$

There is one serious objection to Sweet's theory. If initial (palatal) $g$ - represents an explosive, one would naturally expect that the subsequent history of this sound would be parallel to that of (palatal) $c$ - - in other words we should expect a $d \check{z}$-sound in the later language. This is the case with medial $-g^{-}$- after nasals (e.g. N.E. singe < sengan), and here there is reason for believing in the existence of an explosive at a very early period, probably before the invasion of Britain $\ddagger$; but for $d \check{z}<$ (initial) $g$ - there is no
$\dagger$ The question whether "the use of $i$ in $i u n g$ to denote a stop is in complete harmony with the late Lt. pronunciation..." is one which cannot be discussed here as I have not the necessary knowledge, and several antecedent questions would have to be answered first, e.g. was the pronunciation of Latin adopted in England that of Gaul or Italy or, again, was it that of the Keltic missionaries? I gather that there is some doubt even in regard to the Romance pronunciation of (consonantal) $i$. in cent. vir.

According to the notes contained in Cod. Sal. 140, fol. xx. which seem to date from the latter part of cent. viII. (cf. v. Grienberger, P.B.B. xxi. 196, 198 f.), the pronunciation of Lat. $g$ before front vowels was equivalent to that of Gothic $j$ :

> ubi dicit $\mid$ genuit. J. ponitur ubi gabriel G. ponunt et alia his sin̄.

I have substituted the Roman capitals $J, G$ for the corresponding Gothic letters which occur in the text.
$\ddagger$ This last sentence is an inference from the existence of the $n g$-letter in the Germanic Runic alphabet. Kluge's statement (P.G. p. 841) that -cgdoes not occur after nasals before the end of cent. x. is incorrect. Examples of $-c g-(-g c-)$ from cent. ix. are frequent, and there are a few from cent. viir. (cf. Sievers § 215 , to which Corp. 1682 oncgseta may be added). Moreover $-n c$ - (for $-n g$-) is found as early as 692,3 in cęntinces (Chart. 1, O.E.T. p. 426). It must be remembered also that there is no evidence in favour of Kluge's theory (P.G. p. $367=$ P.G. ${ }^{2}$ p. 426, P.G. p. 843) that gemination has taken place in sengan etc. (cf. p. 68).
evidence. Therefore while agreeing with Sweet that Germ. $j$ - and (palatalised) Germ. $3^{-}$had come to be the same sound, I can not admit that this sound was an explosive. The choice seems to me to lie between $\check{\jmath}$ (palatal spirant) and $i$ (vowel in consonantal function), and it is difficult to decide between the two. The argument from alliteration is not altogether conclusive because the influence of tradition has to be taken into account. The W. Sax. comparative gingra, superl. gingest are forms which demand consideration. Since $-i$ - is universal in both MSS. of the Cura Pastoralis, and since forms with -i- (e.g. Ps. gingrum) occur also in the other dialects, though confused with forms with -u- (gung-, iung-, giung-), $-i$ can not be regarded as a later development of $-i e$-. Again it can not represent Idg. -e-, for the comparative is obviously a new formation from the positive. It may be suggested that ${ }^{*}$ jingra may have arisen from ${ }^{*} j u^{i} n g(i) r a$ in the same way as ${ }^{*} w u r p i\left(>\right.$ wyr $\begin{array}{rl} & \text { ), wudu from }{ }^{*} w i^{u} r p i \text {, }\end{array}$ ${ }^{*} w i^{u} d u$. In that case Germ. $j$ - must have remained $i$ (parallel to $w-=\underline{\imath}$-) during the operation of $i$-umlaut. Again forms like suprige etc. (p. 55), seem to point rather to ${ }^{*}$-jīejce than to $-\frac{j}{3}$ ejce, though here the initial consonant is Germ. -3 -. Sweet indeed (as also Sievers, § 212 note) allows that Rushworth iarwan, early Kent. aethiliaeardi (Chart. 6), may have $i-=j$. It is not easy to see why the same should not be possible also in Bede iaruman, Cp. ieces, Ef. iaces etc. On the whole therefore it seems to me probable that Germ. $j$ - preserved its original value, and that palatalised 3 -became $j$ - at an early period-not later than the first half of cent. viII.
II. At the end of a syllable. The change of $\check{y}>i$ in this position is according to Kluge (P.G. p. 842 f.) as old as cent. x . and perhaps even belongs to Alfred's time, still older examples being found in the Epinal glossary, e.g. grei, bodei, popei. This early vocalisation of $\check{\xi}$ is not however peculiar to Kentish, as is stated by Sievers (§ 214, 2), for Liber Vitae also has meiuald, meifrith $\dagger$. In the West Saxon

+ The last word in the inscription of Thornhill II. may be read either as
texts of Alfred's time there can be no doubt that $i g$, eg, ceg represent $\bar{\imath}$, ei, cei respectively. Thus - $i$ - occurs for $-i g$ - in wifert (Chron. 755 ), wilaf ( $828=$ wiiglaf 825) ; so also -ig- is written for $\bar{\imath}(\bar{\imath} e)$ in gebiggiean (Oros.), igge (Chron. $716=$ iege 873) and especially in the Cottonian MS. of the Cura Pastoralis, e.g. ligge, gebigged, gecigged, getigged, torenigge, siwenigge (cf. Cosijn, I. § 95). That -ceg-represents -cei- is shown by beegerum $=$ O.H.G. beiara (Chron. 891), maegelan (Oros.) = O.H.G. meilān (<Lat. mediolānum). The loss of $-\bar{\jmath}$ - before dentals (Cosijn, I. p. 178 f.) is less conclusive since -3- seems also to have been lost after back vowels in the same position $\dagger$. The evidence however is enough to show that Kluge has rather understated than overstated the age of the change $3>i$.

For the value of $-g$ - after guttural vowels and diphthongs it is sufficient to refer to Sievers, § 214 (cf. Cosijn, I. § 135 ; Kluge, P.G. p. 842).
III. Intervocalic. The regular appearance of $-g$ - for $-3 i-$ in Northumbrian texts seems to show that the change $\check{j}>\boldsymbol{i}$ took place in this position as early as cent. viI. The oldest example is Bewcastle sizbecn. Bede (M.) has sigheri, sighard, sigberct, hygbald. Liber Vitae has 60 examples of sig-, 91 of hyg- and 16 of pleg- (cf. Langob. placi-mundus etc.) in the first member of a compound, and 39 examples of -sig in the second. There are no examples of *sigi, *hygi, *plegi in early Northumbrian texts except the doubtful reading in 1.5 of the Leiden Riddle. The form egsan (Leid. Rid. 1. 13) is to be compared with pleg-; so also possibly L.V. (1. 372), regnhaeg (cf. O.N. regin), but Bede, II. 12, regenheri (M. = raegnheri B.C.), L.V. raegnmaeld (1. 18) doubtless contain Germ. *razna-. So far as I am aware, postvocalic -gi- occurs in early Northumbrian texts only in Ruthwell deezis, which
$\widehat{\text { eateh'nne or } \widehat{\text { eateinne }} \text { (cf. the description of this letter in the Cod. Sal. alphabet). }}$ The word is no doubt identical with L.V. eat $ð$ egn, -b- having been accidentally omitted like $-r$ in the line above.
$\dagger$ Forms like Cp. 495 meig (=Ep. 164 meeg), 728 deid, 850 greig, 1331 eil, so also neid- in Bede's Death-song seem to show that - $\bar{e}$ - approximated in sound to -ei-.
is obscure, and in Clermont cejili, L.V. egilmund (ll. 109, 163, 272 ), and twice in the Namur MS. of Bede aegilbericto III. Pr. and egilberictus III. 7, though all the MSS. usually retain the Frankish form agil-; the apparent absence of umlaut in cegil- is against the assumption that $-i$ - represents Germ. $-i$ - in this word (cf. p. 84) $\dagger$.

In the other dialects there is not the same consistency. Thus both Mercian and Kentish charters have forms like sigred beside sigibed, sigenor etc. So also in the glossaries we find Ep. 992 sigbeacn against Cp. (2043) sigebecn, Ef. 918 ryg against Ep. rygi, Cp. ryge, Cp. 331, 874, 1856 sigl against Ep. Ef. (134, 408, 882) sigil, Cp. 608 smyglas against Ef. 199 smygilas (Ep. smigilas). Loss of 3 before $-i$ - appears to be shown by Cp. 765, 1023 iil (: O.H.G. igil) though it might also be explained under (II) above. In West Saxon texts we find $i i l$, $\imath l$ (C. P.), liर̀, lip (C. Oros. Chron.), hy ${ }^{\delta}$ (H.).

Such forms as Ep. 78, Ef. Cp. tilgend-, Cp. 645, seobgendum, 1467 geongendi must either show loss of $-i$ - before $-g$ - (which in that case must in all probability denote $-j$-) or else $-g$ - must represent $-i j$-. nigon (H. Oros. etc.) has been well explained by Jellinek (P.B.B. xIv. 582): *niun has become dissyllabic through the influence of sibun (seofon) etc. The pronunciation therefore was doubtless nijon.

To conclude, there seems to be no evidence that Germ. intervocalic $-j$ - ever became spirantal; otherwise the umlaut in W. Sax. iege, hieg etc. is unintelligible + ; but $-{ }_{-j}$ - seems to have become $-i$ - at an early period-after the operation of $i$-umlaut but (at least in Northumbrian) before the end of cent. vir. The history of (guttural) -3- presents no difficulty.

## 13. Dialectic Peculiarities.

Several characteristics common to the Northumbrian dialect and that of the Psalter and in part also to the South
$\dagger$ Yet the form agilimundus occurs in Amm. Marc. xvir. 12 (cf. also the umlaut in O.N. Egill).
$\ddagger$ This does not apply to Germ. intervocalic - $-j j$ - the history of which in English is altogether obscure; cf. wag, (wah), ag, hnagan etc.

Eastern dialects-such as e.g. the effects of $i$-umlaut on diphthongs, the operation of palatal umlaut and the change of $\bar{x}>\bar{e}$-have already been discussed. It is intended here only to deal with such changes as seem to be peculiar to each separate dialect, or to have taken place at some period or in some form which distinguishes them from similar phenomena elsewhere.

## I. Northumbrian.

1. The change of $x>e$. In the MSS. of Bede it is perfectly clear from the consistent -e- of ecg-, heri-, -stedi, sebbi, eu, cedd etc. (so also before nasals, cf. p. 60) that -e- is the normal form of the $i$-umlaut of $-\infty$ - (Germ. $-\alpha$-). On the other hand there are certain forms with -ae- ( $-\infty-e^{-}$) before $-i$ - in the following syllable. Of these laestinga, uaetlinga probably have no umlaut (cf. uufingas, tiouulfinga) ; aecci, aeddi, haeddi again probably have $e^{2}$ ( $i$-umlaut of $-a-$ ), cf. acca, adda, L.V. hadda; the same is perhaps true also of blaecca, aebba. The form aedil- (beside edil-) however requires explanation on account of the difference between the MSS. of Bede and Liber Vitae. M. has 42 examples of aedil- against 6 of edil-, while Liber Vitae has 4 examples of aexil- against 68 of exil- (including a few cases in which the cross stroke of the $-d$ - is omitted or no longer legible). Ruthwell has ceppilce but Thornhill I. has epelberht, epelwini. There is no evidence for *eepel- in early Northumbrian texts, though that is the usual form in Mercian and West Saxon. Again Liber Vitae has egilmund (thrice) against Clermont $w_{j}$ ili, while Bede N. has both aegil- and egil- (cf. p. 83). The change of $c>e e$ seen in L.V. exil-, egil- is not altogether without parallels. Thus Germ. $-a$ - before $-\chi$ - when affected by $i$-umlaut regularly appears as $-\infty$ - in Northumbrian, but in Lind. D. sg. eher, N. pl. ehras, Acc. G. pl. ehera we find -e-. The only explanation of these forms seems to be that they come from a N.A. sg. ${ }^{*}$ ehhir $<{ }^{*}$ cehhir (where -hh- must have come from the analogy of the oblique cases). In the
form allmectig in Caedmon's Hymn and in Ruthwell almeh'ttig also we seem to have a further development of $c e>e$ before $-i$ - in the following syllable. Lind. meeltig may be due to macht, since $a_{j} a-$ and $\bar{i}_{j} a$ - stems had fallen together in late Northumbrian. The evidence is indeed scanty but it seems on the whole to justify the supposition that a change of $a>e$ took place before preserved $-i$ - in the following syllable. The date of this change may be determined approximately by the rarity of $-e$ - in the MSS. of Bede. It is to be noticed that C. has aeril- (aedil-) in every case where M. has edil-. About 720-750 then will seem to be the most reasonable date $\dagger$.
2. $u$-umlaut. There is no evidence for umlaut before labial vowels prior to the operation of palatal umlaut, as was the case in the dialect of the Psalter. The preservation of -a- in Bede M. hacanos, hagustaldensis, Alph. lagu etc. is decisive evidence to the contrary. M. indeed contains no examples of $u$-umlaut except derauuda (v. 2), while on the other hand in addition to hacanos, hagu-, we find baduuini, badudegn, hadulac, cerotces, heruteu etc.; so also metudees, -fadur in Caedmon's Hymn. C. has beaduðegn (iv. 13), ceortes (Iv. 6), heorutforda (Iv. Pr., IV. 厄̆), but this MS. is probably not Northumbrian (cf. p. 60). The Alphabet has lagu but geofu, and Ruthwell has heafunces. For Liber Vitae the statistics are as follows: haðu- $58, h a ð-$ (error) 1 against heaðu-19, heað- (error) 1, heoðu- 1, eaðu-1; badu55, bad- 11, badi- (error) 1 against beadu- 3, bead- 1, beodu- 4 ; alu- 16; lagudi 1 ; -uaru 3 ; but eafu 2 ; total, forms with $-a-146$, forms with -ea-(-eo-) 32. friðu-18, frið- 4 against friuðu- 1, frioðu- 8; -gifu 1; total forms with -i- 23, forms with $i_{0}$ - ( $-i u$-) 9 . On the other hand against eofor- 2, -geofu 2 there are apparently no forms with $-e$-. The operation of $u$-umlaut is therefore far from being complete in Liber Vitae. From its partial character and from its almost entire absence in the earliest texts, it seems probable
† Lind. D. sg. feder probably does not belong here but is rather due to $i$-umlaut, representing a Germ. *fåri.
that its influence was scarcely perceptible (except perhaps after $w$-) before the middle of cent. viir. It may be observed that uudu- occurs also in Epinal, though labial umlaut is there otherwise unknown.
3. Umlaut of $-e$ - through a following back vowel (other than $-u-$ ) does not occur in the early texts though it is frequent in Lindisfarne.
4. Loss of $-u$ - in unaccented syllables before $-h$-. In Liber Vitae there is no occurrence of final $-u$ in the first member of a compound when the second member has initial $-h$-. The forms which are found are:-bad-helm (5), badheard (1), bad-hard (2), bad-hun (1), bead-heard (1), frithhelm (1), friঠ-helm (2), frið-hild (1), and probably sna-hard (1), cf. p. 50 . It is to be noticed that the only other cases where $-u$ - is wanting are baduini (2), frithuini (1), where the loss of $-u$ - is in all probability merely graphic (against baduuini 11, friðuuini 2, frioð̈uini 3), and hað-berct (1 against haðu-berct 16) and heað-frith (1 against hearu-frith 2), which may simply be errors. To judge from the absence of any exceptions and especially from the absence of diphthongisation in sna-hard (cf. p. 51) the operation of this syncope would seem to be fairly old (cent. VII.?). In that case bead-heard will be due to a compromise between bad-and beadu-. It would be unwise however to lay too much stress on sna-hard, as it may have been influenced by $s n \bar{\alpha} \dagger$.
5. Delabialisation of diphthongs. i. Germ. $a u$ seems to preserve its labial value in M. in three places, aeodbaldum II. Pr., aeodbaldo II. 7, II. 9 ; but elsewhere -ea- (rarely -aea-, -ea-) is the usual form in M. In B. -eo- occurs in eodbaldo II. 7, II. 9, eodfrid II. 14; so also in deothdaege in Bede's Death-song. In Liber Vitae -eo- for -ea-is not unknown : against 258 examples of ead-, eat- (including eada 12, eata 5, eað̆ryth 3, ealac 1) we find 5 examples of eod-, eot- (viz.

[^23]eoduulf 1 eodbald 2, eoduald 1, eota 1), and against 149 examples of ean-we find 5 examples of eon- (viz. eonuulf 3 , eonuald 1, eonmund 1); so also we find aeostor-, eostur-uini against aestur-uini, aestor-hild (once each). These examples are not sufficient to justify us in supposing that Germ. au remained labial in Northumbrian longer than elsewhere. It seems to me probable that the delabialisation was already complete in Bede's time and that aeod- has been copied from earlier documents. The comparatively frequent -eofor - $\breve{a}$ - in L.V. beodu- (4), heoðu- (1), may possibly mean that the new diphthong arising from $-a$ - still retained a labial value (cf. georored, l. 282).
ii. Delabialisation of the ēo-diphthongs (arising from Germ. eu, Germ. e before $r+$ consonant etc.) occurs in M. in earpualdo (II. 15), amfleat (I. 33), probably in streanaes (III. 24 etc.), possibly in cearli (II. 14), eappa (IV. 13, 14). In Ruthwell it is not quite clear whether we should read heofunces, heo( $l) d u(n)$ or héafunces, hea( $(l) d u(n)$, yet the use of the letter $\bar{e} a r$ shows at least that the sound of - $\overline{\bar{e}} a$ - and - $\bar{e} o-$ can have differed but little. In Liber Vitae on the other hand the delabialisation is almost unknown, the only example of -ea- being bearn-hard (l. 464 against 72 examples of beorn-). The delabialisation cannot therefore have been complete in early Northumbrian, though this was no doubt the case in Lindisfarne.
iii. Delabialisation of the $\overline{\bar{c}} u$-diphthongs is unknown in the early Northumbrian texts $\dagger$.
6. Above all it is to be remembered that the $\check{e} o-$ and $\check{\imath} u-$ ( $\check{\imath} 0-$ ) diphthongs were not confused in early Northumbrian. Liber Vitae, which according to Thompson (Handbook of Palaeography, p. 247 f .) $\ddagger$ was compiled about 840 , is still
$\dagger$ Such forms as irminrici (M. 1ı. 5), uerlama- (土. 7), bern-uini (ıv. 16) etc., point to reduction of stress in the second member of the diphthong but not necessarily to delabialisation.
$\ddagger$ The arguments adduced in support of this date in Cat. Anc. MSS. (Brit. Mus.) ir. p. 84 and Pal. Soc. I. pl. 238 are far from convincing. Practically the date rests on the identification of uoenan (1.16) with the Pictish king Eoghenan (reigned 836-839). This identification seems to me very doubtful. Judging from the general orthography of L.V., one would naturally read
quite free from this confusion. The Genealogies (O.E.T. p. 167 ff .) are not a Northumbrian text, for no Northumbrian kings are mentioned after Alhred (r. 765-774) while the Mercian line is brought down to Coenuulf (d. 819). The prototype list may of course have been of Northumbrian origin.

## II. The dialect of the Psalter:

1. Labial umlaut (cf. Zeuner, p. 28 ff. where full details are given). That this took place very early is shown not only by the fact that it preceded palatal umlaut, but also by the distinction between e.g. hafað, sagað and spearað, cwaecade, which shows that $-a-<$ Germ. $-a i-$ and $-a-<$ Germ. $-\bar{o}$ - had not yet fallen together in unaccented syllables, the latter being still labial as also in N.A. pl. daegas. Moreover $-0-<$ Germ. -a- before nasals was still labial (e.g. draecan, -weafre through the influence of *-weafran), and even the sound arising therefrom by $i$-umlaut (e.g. fearende, tosaecendes for *toscaecendes); so also the sound arising from Germ. -an- before voiceless spirants appears to have been still labial (e.g. pl. gehleadað) ; so also (Germ. -ōj- can not yet have become -i- (cf. gleadie). Syncope of vowels which have produced labial umlaut is seen in סeosne etc. It is not quite clear whether such forms as spreocu, steogun are due to a second operation of labial umlaut or whether they are due to analogy.
2. Umlaut before back vowels may be old in leofar (: G. libaij). A later repetition with a different result is perhaps to be seen in weagas, fealan (cf. p. 7 f.).
3. The change of $e^{1}>e$ (cf. Zeuner, p. 11 ff .) must have taken place at an early period, for $\omega^{1}$ must still have been distinct from $\varepsilon^{2}, e^{3}$ and $e^{4}$ which are exempt from the change (cf. pp. 4 f., 8 ), whereas the change of $\bar{c}>\bar{e}$ affects $\bar{e}^{3}$ and $\overline{e^{4}}$ (though not $\bar{e}^{2}$ ) as well as $\overline{e^{1}}$. The change of $w^{1}>e$ would

[^24]therefore seem to be earlier than the change of $\overline{\omega^{1}}\left(\bar{c}^{3}, \bar{w}^{4}\right)>\bar{e}$ and can hardly have taken place much after the operation of palatal umlaut. It may of course be still earlier. The change apparently did not take place in words which were not fully accented, e.g. cet, ðcet (cf. Zeuner, p. 13). Sievers' explanation of these forms ( $\$ 151$, note) is incredible to me.
4. Delabialisation of diphthongs. The confusion of ēo and $\bar{e} a$ in nominal and verbal forms (other than those of the substantive verb) is comparatively rare (cf. Zeuner, pp. 23, 50 etc.). In pronominal forms however and in forms of the verb substantive -ea- regularly appears for -eo-, e.g. G. pl. ðeara (never *ðeora) : O.H.G. dero (cf. G. sg. ঠere: O.H.G. dera) ; G. pl. heara (either from *hez $\overline{0}$ or through the influence of Jeara, cf. G.D. sg. hire, D. sg. m. D. pl. him) ; 1 sg. eam (: W. Sax. eom) ; perhaps also pl. earun: O.N. ero $\dagger$. So also -ie- appears for $-\bar{\imath} u$-, e.g. N. sg. f. hie ( 85,11 ) : W. Sax. hio (heo) ; N. sg. f. sie (frequent) against seo (25, 10), W. Sax. sio (seo), cf. ðeos; Conj. sie, siem, sien (frequent) against sion ( 60,5 ), cf. sio, seo, sion in Chart. 45 (Surrey). In all these cases the delabialisation may be due to the fact that these words usually had a subordinate accent; this is further confirmed by Acc. G. sg. etc. onsiene (: G. siuns), where the delabialisation must be due to the chief accent being on the first syllable. The delabialisation must of course have taken place before the $\check{e} o-$ and $\check{\tau} u-(\check{\imath} o-)$ diphthongs fell together.
5. The $\check{e} o$ - and $\check{\check{c}} u$-diphthongs are confused, as to some extent in West Saxon. They can be distinguished only

[^25](1) where palatal umlaut has operated, cf. p. 9 f., (2) where delabialisation has taken place through lack of stress; cf. 4, above.

## III. Kentish.

This investigation will be restricted chiefly to Charters 4-8, and 33-44 (in the Oldest English Texts) the Kentish origin of which is practically certain. The study of this dialect is beset with very great difficulties, for the differences between the language of the early charters and that of the later ones (especially $38-40$, and 43,44 ) are not all of such a character as might naturally be expected between the earlier and later forms of the same dialect. Thus palatal umlaut prevails in the early charters, but in the later ones it becomes gradually rarer (see below). But if the monoph-
 become $\check{e}(\bar{e}), \check{e}, \check{\imath}$ respectively, as in Northumbrian and the dialect of the Psalter, it is incredible that the diphthong should again be restored in the same dialect without any diphthongisation taking place in the case of original $\check{e}, \check{e}, \check{\check{v}}$. Again breaking of Germ. $-a$ - before $l+$ consonant does not occur in Chart. 4-7 and is rare before Chart. 38, but in Chart. $38-40,43,44$, the examples of eea- greatly outnumber those of $-\alpha$-. The Kentish texts of the Middle English period (cf. Sweet, H.E.S. § 645, 740) agree with the later Charters. They show further that the breaking (or at least the palatalisation) of Germ. - $\alpha$ - before $l+$ consonant took place before the palatalisation of initial gutturals, and consequently that a Kentish form ceald ( $={ }^{*}$ ceald) of cent. Ix. can not be the direct development of a Kentish form cald ( $=$ * kald) of cent. viII. The evidence of the forms with $i$-umlaut unfortunately can not be relied on here; for since there is a change of $\bar{e}^{2}>\bar{e}$ in Kentish, there may also have been a change of $\varepsilon^{2}>e$, as in the dialect of the Erf. glossary (p. 107), consequently uelhisci (Chart. 4) might have $-e-<\omega^{2}$
 difficulties, so far as I can see, can only be solved on the
hypothesis that the dialect of the later charters was from the beginning distinct from that in which the earlier charters were written, the latter being closely related to the Midland and Northumbrian dialects, while the affinities of the former were apparently rather with West Saxon. Such a change of dialect might be explained in two ways: i. There may have been two distinct dialects in Kent from the beginning, one, which belonged originally perhaps to the Eastern part (Canterbury and its neighbourhood), at first prevailing but being eventually ousted by the other, which perhaps belonged to the districts bordering on Surrey and Sussex. ii. The dialect of the earlier charters may not have been true Kentish at all but a literary or court language of chiefly Midland complexion though modified by local characteristics; this may in time have given place to the native dialect, which is therefore to be seen in the later charters. The latter explanation seems to me the more probable since the time covered by those charters which show a dialect of the first type coincides approximately with the period of Mercian supremacy, which lasted (with intermissions) from Wulfhere to Coenwulf. It is noticeable that the first charter (38) with strongly marked characteristics of the second type belongs to 831, only a few years after the fall of the Mercian power (cf. Chron. 823).

It will be found convenient to divide the later charters into four groups, the first containing Chart. 33-36, the second Chart. 37, the third Chart. $38-40$ and 43,44 , the fourth Chart. 41, 42. Of these groups the third shows the most striking characteristics of the later or strictly Kentish language.

1. The breaking of Germ. $-a$ - before $l+$ consonant. Charters 4-7 give 9 examples of $-a$-, none of -ea- (though aeldredi occurs in Chart. 4) ; Chart. 8 gives one example of $-e a-$, none of $-a-$; Chart. 33-36 give 14 examples of $-a$-, 5 of -ea-; Chart. 37 gives 4 examples of $-a$-, none of -ea- ; Chart. 38-40, 43, 44 give 11 examples of $-a-, 38$ of -ea-; Chart. 41, 42 give 12 examples of $-a$-, 3 of -ea-. After 850 forms with $-\alpha$ - seem to have become quite exceptional, as
may be seen from Chart. $27-32$ which are distinctly Kentish in their language. In only one of these (Chart. 29) is $-a-$ at all frequent. Subsequent monophthongisation of $-e a-$ to $-c e-$ appears in eðelbceld (Chart. 32).
2. Palatal Umlaut. In Chart. 4-7 we find: monophthongal forms 4 (uuiht- twice, leg, aehcha, all in Chart. 5), diphthongal none; Chart. 8, monophthougal 1 (uuiht-), diphthongal 1 (heah-) ; Chart. 33-36, monophthongal 3 (uuiht-, hwh 33, reht- 34), diphthongal 9 (heah four times, beag 33, wioht 34, heah twice 35, beug 36) ; Chart.37, monophthongal 6 (aec, cec), diphthongal 1 (weax); Chart. 38-40, 43, 44, monophthongal 1 (reht- 38, cf. also betwix 44), diphthongal 11 (feoh, reoht, heah 38, fiah 39, geðeahte, heah, beag, smeagende 40, meahse 43, heah, eacca 44); Chart. 41, 42, monophthongal 3 (sex twice 41, bay 42), diphthongal 1 (beag 41).
3. The change of $e>e$. No examples of $-e-<a^{1}$ occur in the early Charters (4-8). In the later Charters the occurrences are as follows: Chart. $33 \ddagger$ aěel- 5 , daeg- 1 ; total $-c e-6$; -e- does not occur. Chart. 34 aeðel- 5 , cet 2, ð cut 3, haebbe 2, et 1, hueðer 1; total -ce- 12: ee- 2. Chart. 35 aeð̌el-4, at 4, ðret 2, et 1 ; total $-c e-10$ : ee- 1. Chart. 36 aeðel- 2, daeg-1, cet 1; total-ce-4; -e-does not occur. Chart. 37 at 8 , ðкet 10, habbe 1, ðces 2, mage 2, hwader 1, cefter 1, dag 3, ðaette 1, خette 1, hueder 1, festen 1; total -w- 29: $-e-3$. Chart. 38 eðel- 5 , Øet 4 , et 3, wes, Øes 2, hebfað, hebbe, festrie; total -e- 17 ; - $c$ - does not occur. Chart. 39 गet 2, et 4, deg, dei, गes, hebbe, hwet, scel; total -e- 12; -ce-does not occur. Chart. 40 aeðel- 2, ðeet, خet 2, et 3, festnie 2, hebbe 3, wes, dei, -gef; total -ce-3:-e-13. Chart. 41 aeðel-, cet 4,万ret 15, habbe 2, cefter 2, hwceder, daeg, hwaet, begat, mege, et 2, deg 3, hebbe, festnie 2, efter; total -ce-29:-e- 9§. Chart. 42 ðot 4, aet, begat, cefter, eðel- 2, ðet 2, dei 5, deg, festnie, ðes, fere, liffest, befestan, megen; total -cu-7:-e-16. Chart. 43
 Chart. 34 are omitted; so also forms with berht which alone occur in these charters.
$\ddagger$ In this list slight orthographical differences such as $\varepsilon, a e$ for $a, u$ for $w$, etc. are not regarded.
§ Cf. also fulgere 1. 65.
ěel-8, ðet, et, deg; total -e- 11 ; -ce-does not occur. Chart. $44 e^{\searrow} \mathrm{del}-9$, deg; total -ce-9:-e-1. The absence of $-e-\left(<c^{1}\right)$ in the early Charters must be simply an accident, for the confusion is shown by the use of $-\ell$ - for $-e-$ ( $<$ Germ. $-e-$ ) in gębredi (Chart. 4). Similar cases in the later Charters are: gcefe etc. ( 37 thrice), -cuaedenan ( 37 twice and -cuedenan once), swcestar, wcergeld (41). So also -ce- ( $\ell$ ) appears for $-e-<e^{2}$ in tucelf (37 thrice), welles (41), swcelc (41 thrice), selle (41) and perhaps in twcegen (41). It is to be observed that in contrast to the dialect of the Psalter the change of $a>e$ takes place also in words which were not fully accented, e.g. et, $\begin{aligned} & \text { et beside } c e t, ~ \\ & \text { cet }\end{aligned}$; so also the change affects $c^{3}$, e.g. allmehtgum (37, 42). Whether uelhisci (Chart. 4), uuelesces (37), elf- (38) have $e<\alpha^{3}$ or $e<w^{2}$ is not quite certain, but in uelhisci the latter is more probable. The same change is found in the glossaries (cf. p. 107). Before $-r r$ - and $-r-+$ consonant the cases of $c e: e\left(<\mu^{3}\right)$ seem to correspond closely to the cases of $x: e\left(<e^{l}\right)$ above: thus cerfe- (cerbe-) occurs in Chart. 40 (twice), 41 ( 4 times), 42 ( 7 times), 44 (once); cerðe- in Chart. 42 (once) ; onccerrende in Chart. 34 (once); so also cerce- Chart. 40, 41 (once each). On the other hand -e- occurs in erfe (érfe 34 l. 9, erbe 40 l. 19) Chart. 34 (once), 39 (once), 40 (twice), 41 (twice); ferwerne in Chart. 40 (once), gecerran in Chart. 40 (once) ; and erce- in Chart. 38, 40 (once each). Probably lengthening before $r+$ consonant did not take place so early as in the dialect of the Psalter and Northumbrian. The conclusions drawn from the Kentish evidence altogether may be summed up briefly as follows: the change of $c e>e$ (and consequent confusion with $e^{1}$ and $e^{2}$ ) began very early, probably before the end of cent. vii., and was not confined to $w^{1}$ as in the dialect of the Psalter, but extended also to $c^{3}$ and probably to $\alpha^{2}$.
4. The change of $\bar{e}>\bar{e}$. i. Forms with $-e-<\bar{a}^{1}$ are frequent in the earliest Charters, though forms with -ae$(a, \ell)$ are also found. Chart. 4 has -redi (thrice) against -maeri (once); Chart. 5 has 4 examples of -e- (-redus, meg-, stret, -redi) but none of -ae- etc. In the later Charters the occurrences are as follows: Chart. $33-c e-1$ (wer-): -e- 2
(wer-) ; Chart. 34 -e- 1 (were); Chart. 35 -e- 2 (-setum, wer-); Chart. 36 -e- 1 (wer-); Chart. 37 -ce- 9 ( (бает 3, waron, scep, caeses (2), uuege, suesenda): -e- 3 (red, suesendum, arede); Chart. 38 -e- 6 (wer-, were, mei, meg, begetan 2); Chart. $39-e-6$ (mei, gere 2, cesa, wege 2); Chart. $40-c x-1$ (wega): -e- 4 (wer-, mei-, gere, cesa); Chart. 41 $-c$ - 6 (wer-, pcer, sceppa, meggas, sele, sceleð): -e- 12 (mei, gere, cesa 2, wega 2, scep, ðer 3, gesele, -lese); Chart. 42 -ce- 2 (ðer, swasendum): -e- 2 (red, medwe); Chart. 43 -e- 5 (medwe 3, stret 2); Chart. $44-e-1$ (mei-). The following forms have been omitted from this list: (1) suae, swae etc.; Chart. 34 ( 7 times), 37 ( 6 times), 41 ( 6 times), 42 ( 7 times) : swe etc.; Chart. 38 (4 times), 39 (once), 40 (twice); this word may have undergone shortening. (2) -red in compound names; this form appears consistently ; here also shortening is not unlikely.
ii. Forms with $-a e-(\ell)=\bar{c}^{3}$ are more frequent in the early Charters: Chart. $4-\varepsilon-1$ ( $(d r i c o)$; Chart. 5 -ae- 1 (-gae) against one probable example of $-e$ - (enfridi); Chart. 7 -ae- 2 (-iaeae, -iaee); to these examples limin-aee (Chart. 6) with $-\bar{e}$ - arising from contraction of $\alpha^{3}+i$ is probably to be added. In the later Charters only $-e$ - occurs : egi in Chart. 33 ; -ge in Chart. 34, 35 (five times), 36 ; and perhaps hei in Chart. 43.
iii. -e- $<\bar{e}^{4}$ seems to accur in -leg (Chart. 5); -ce- occurs in -hceh (Chart. 33), hegyðe, hwegyð̆e (Chart. 34), wec, aec ( 6 times in Chart. 37), bag (Chart. 42), possibly also in paga (Chart. 33). Elsewhere the diphthong is restored (cf. p. 92).
iv. $-e-<\bar{क}^{2}$ appears first in Chart. 37. There seem however to be no examples of words with $\vec{e}^{2}$ in the early Charters except probably aes(s)ica in Chart. 5 (cf. aesica in Bede, iv. 8). Chart. 33 has -herð; Chart. 34 has 8 examples of -ce- (ceht 2, ncenig 2, ঠcem, arceddan, bcem, gedcele); Chart. 35,36 have no examples. In Chart. 37-43 the occurrences are as follows: Chart. 37 дстm 3, huaetenra, aegera, gemenum, maest, ðem 3, hela, clenra, gedele; total -ce-7:-e- 6. Chart. 38 रem, er, enig, neniggra, mest, se-; total -e- 6 ; there are no examples of $-\infty$-. Chart. 39 万em 4 , awege; total
-e- 5 ; no examples of $-\infty-$. Chart. 40 ðcem, ðem 3, leste; total -ce-1:-e-4. Chart. 41 бcem 3, cer, cenig, cenne, gelesten, gelceste, Əem 6, clennisse 2, gedele, hemed, redenne; total -cc-8: -e- 11. Chart. 42 才ст 2, cer 2, mest, gerece, leste; total $-\infty-4$ : -e- 3. Chart. 43 has se-.

The change of $\overline{e^{1}}>\bar{e}$ must have taken place before the end of cent. viI. and the same is probably true of $\bar{e}^{3}>\bar{e}$ in spite of the survival of -gae etc. The change of $\bar{\alpha}^{2}>\bar{e}$ on the other hand belongs in all probability to a somewhat later period; yet not so late as might be inferred from the absence of forms with $-e$ - before Chart. 37; for Corpus contains several examples while in Erfurt they are frequent (cf. p. 119 f.). The change of $\bar{e}^{2}>\bar{e}$ is confined to this dialect, and the archetype of Erfurt was probably a Kentish text, while Corpus, though not Kentish itself, has been compiled in part from Kentish sources (cf. p. 161). Neither Corpus nor the archetype of Erfurt can very well be later than the end of cent. viII.

The completeness of the change $\bar{A}>\bar{e}$ is shown lastly by the use of $-\infty$ - for $-e$ - in haer, aecan (37), wce ( 42 twice), éc (44) : W. Sax. hēr, èce.
5. Diphthongs. i. One of the most striking characteristics of the early Charters is the frequent preservation of -aea-. Thus Chart. 6 has balthhaeardi, aeanberhti, aethiliaeardi and Chart. 5, 7 have -aea (arising through contraction). With the exception of theabul (Chart. 5) -eadoes not appear before Chart. 8 where as also in the later Charters it is universal.
ii. Confusion of the $\check{e} 0-$ and $\check{\imath} u$ - ( $\check{\imath} o-)$ diphthongs. In the early Charters there is no evidence, but in the later ones it appears to be complete. Thus e.g. biorn (36) beside beorn ( 33 twice, 34,35 twice, 37 thrice, 40 twice), ciol ( 36,41 twice, 44 four times) beside ceol ( 33 twice, 34,35 , 38,40 twice, 42,43 ) ; wior $\begin{aligned} & \\ & \text { (34) ; siolf ( } 41,42 \text { ) beside }\end{aligned}$ seolfa (34); סiow (37 twice, 41) ; liofast (42 twice), liofre (41 four times); geleornie (34), weorðe (41 thrice), ðreo- (41 twice). In the latest Charters $-i o$ - tends to become more frequent.
iii. Confusion of the $\check{e} a$ - and $\check{\bar{e}} o-$ diphthongs is not very frequent. The following examples occur in the later charters: eoster- ( 35 four times), georwien (37), -weord (37), beorn (38); bearn- (37), -bearte (38), bearht (43 twice, 44 twice), -beader (41). The last two examples are probably due to delabialisation (see below). So also in (relatively) unaccented words : earan (34), סeara ( $36,37,41$ thrice).
iv. Delabialisation of the diphthong $\check{\imath} o ~(<~ e a r l i e r ~ \check{\tau ̃ o, ~ e ̌ o) . ~}$ Besides the forms with -ea-we find also -ia-, though not before Chart. 38. These forms are especially frequent in Chart. 38--40, 43, 44, which altogether have $17 i a$ against 12 eo, 7 io; Chart. 38 : hiu (2), friandum, biarn (5), cial; Chart. 39 : bebiade, sia, fiah; Chart. 40 : bebiade, sia; Chart. 43: biarn, diar; Chart. 44: cial. On the other hand Chart. 41, 42 have only 3 cases of -ia- (hia twice, bian all in 41 ; possibly also gerian) against 16 eo, 18 io $\dagger$.
6. The confusion of $-y$ - and $-e-\left(<e^{1}, e^{2}, c^{1}\right.$ etc.) occurs only in Chart. 38 yfter (twice); and therefore was probably only beginning in the first half of cent. Ix. A further example is perhaps afforded by -styde in Chart. 29.

## 14. The Epinal, Erfurt and Corpus Glossaries.

In tracing the historical development of Old English sounds I have used the evidence of the Glossaries very sparingly. This has been done for two reasons, firstly because there is no decisive external evidence in regard either to the period or the locality in which they were written; secondly because the interual evidence is obviously very complicated. Apart from any questions of date or dialect, I accept Sweet's conclusions (O.E.T. p. 33) on the general

[^26]relationship of the texts. These may conveniently be tabulated as follows :-
${ }^{*}$ A glossary in $a$-order (Archetype I .)


That Erfurt is not a direct copy of Archetype II. (Sweet's "EE") will be made quite clear by the following investigation (cf. also O.E.T. p. 31). The above table represents the minimum number of texts necessarily involved. There may of course have been others; for example, there may have been more than one text intermediate between Archetype I. and Corpus. The Archetype of Corpus had other sources besides Archetype I., some of which were used also for Erfurt II. and probably for Erfurt III. (cf. Sweet l. c.).

The difficulties involved in the investigation of the English forms are obvious. Any given form (e.g.) in Epinal may either directly represent a form of Archetype I., or may be due to a change in Archetype II. or in Epinal itself. In the following pages I have tried to ascertain (1) the forms of Archetype I., and (2) the changes characteristic of each of the three texts. The forms of Archetype 1. may be inferred with some degree of probability when all the three texts agree; so also with the forms of Archetype II. when Epinal and Erfurt agree. Changes characteristic of Epinal may be inferred when Erfurt and Corpus agree in a form differing from that of Epinal. Changes characteristic of Erfurt may be inferred in the same way from the agreement of Epinal and Corpus. In applying this test certain reservations must of course be made. The chief difficulty lies in determining the forms of Archetype 1 . when the forms of Epinal and Erfurt differ from those of Corpus. Glosses in which all three texts show material differences in English words are not very frequent. Lastly it may be mentioned that even among those glosses in which all three texts show identical forms, and which may therefore reason-
ably be regarded as representing the forms of Archetype I., the language is far from consistent. The reason for this is doubtless that in Archetype I. as in the surviving texts some words were copied directly from much older documents (whether non-alphabetical glossaries or even from the original interlinear glosses themselves), while others were modernised (cf. p. 140 etc.).

The following tables do not claim to give an exhaustive account of the phonology of the glossaries. The discussion is confined to sounds which are differently treated in the different dialects and to forms which show archaic or dialectical peculiarities. For the rest it will be enough to refer to Dieter, Ueber Sprache u. Mundart der ältesten englischen Denkmäler (Göttingen 1885).

It will be convenient to divide the glosses into three classes: A. Glosses found in Epinal and Erfurt I. B. Glosses in Erfurt II., III. C. Glosses peculiar to Corpus.

$$
\text { i. } \quad e^{1} .
$$

A. $w^{1}$ is usually represented by $a e(~(c, \varepsilon)$ in all the glossaries. In 30 clear cases of $\alpha^{1}$ Epinal, Erfurt and Corpus agree in ae ( $c, \ell$ ) :-

Ep. 50 aesil=auellanus
84 hraecli=amiculo
90 uuraec $=$ aegit,
110 faestinnum = arcibus
157 scaet = bona
174 naesgristlae = cartilaga
180 aesc (etc.) = cercylus
205 gihaeplice $=$ conpar
232 uua(e)terthruch $=$ caractis
236 haesil=corylus
405 librlaeppan=fibrae
440 aetgaer $u=$ framea
450 aescthrotae $=$ ferula
479 aedilra = gregariorum
523 uuaes (etc.) $=$ (interceptum) est
525 gibaen uuaes $=$ inpendebatur
577 staebplegan = ludi litterari

| Erf. haesl | Cp. $243 \mathrm{hae}(\mathrm{s}) \mathrm{l}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| hraegl | 155 hregli |
| uraec | 94 wraec |
| festinnun | 223 faestinnum |
| scaet | 311 scaet |
| naes- | 350 naes- |
| aesc (etc.) | 438 aesc |
| gihaeplicae | e 524 gehaeplice |
| uaeter- | 367 uuęter- |
| haesl | 536 haesl |
| -laeppan | 873 -laeppan |
| aetgaru | 922 atgaeru |
| aesc- | 861 aesc- |
| aedilra | 993 unaeæilsa |
| -uaes | 1084 -waes |
| -uaes | 1086 -waes |
| scceb- | 1245 staef- |

Ep. 677 blaecteru $=$ napta
706 bigaet=obtenuit
733 fraehraedae = praepropera
741 -ludgaet $=$-seudoterum
783 edscaept = palingenesean
814 forslaegen = proflicta
830 hunaegaepl=pastellas
848 hraebnes foot=quinquefolium
915 anhaebd=suspensus
939 faetmaendi $=$ sinuosa
1002 uuraec $=$ torq...
1040 uuinaern $=$ taberna
1071 waeffsas = uespas

| Erf. blaec- | Cp. 1360 blaec- |
| :--- | :--- |
| bigaet | 1409 bigaet (etc.) |
| fraehraedae | 1633 fraehraeðe |
| -ludgaet | 1538 -ludgaet |
| edscaept | 1488 edscaeft |
| forslaegen | 1662 forslaegen |
| -aepl | 1512 -aeppel |
| hrafnas- | 1697 hraefnes- |
| anhabd | 1947 ahaefd |
| faedmendi | 1862 faeðmendi |
| uuraec | 2033 uuraec |
| -aern | 1983 -aern |
| uuaeps | 2098 uuaefsas |

So also in 5 glosses in which the value of -ae- is not certain :-

Ep. 75 staefnendra $\dagger=$ alternantium Erf. staefnen- Cp. 126 staefnendra dra
864 gistaebnęndrae $\dagger=$ reciprocato gistaebnen 1721 gestaefnen-
dre
87 uuraec $=$ actuaris
uraec
62 wraec
587 haecid=lucius
840 aehrian $=q u i s q u i l i a e$
haecid 1247 haecid $\ddagger$
agrihan 1696 aegnan§
Epinal and Erfurt have $-a e-=\alpha^{1}$ in 2 glosses which are wanting in Corpus:-

| Ep. 400 hraen $=$ flustra (etc.) Erf. raen |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| 407 facilae $=$ fax | faecile $\\|$ |

Epinal and Corpus have $-a e-=e^{1}$ in 2 glosses:-
Ep. 489 scaeptloan $=$ hastilia telorum

1070 steupfaedaer $=$ uitricius (Erf. staupfotar) | Cp. 1005 scaeptloan |
| ---: | :--- |
| 2124 steopfaeder |

So also in 3 glosses where Erfurt has - $\alpha$-:-

Ep. 416 aesc $=$ fraximus
474 smael $=$ gracilis
742 hraed=percitus

Erf. aastc smal hrad

Cp. 920 aesc
992 smel
1539 hraed
$\dagger$ These words have $a^{1}$ in all probability. In other texts there occur forms which seem to point to $e^{2}$.
$\ddagger$ Perhaps a contamination of hacod and *hecid (: O.H.G. hehhit).
§ Probably related to Goth. ahana.
\| Cf. also the doubtful form Ep. Erf. 962 staeg=stagnum.

Erfurt and Corpus have 8 examples of $-a e-=c e^{1}$ in the glosses wanting in Epinal $\dagger$ :-

Erf. 255 uaeps = cabro
273 faegen $=$ campos
285 hraebn = corax
298 gresgro(e) $n i=$ carpassini
336 gedębin gebil=debita pensio
353 araebndae $=$ expendisse
367 stęb (etc.) = exito
385 bęcdermi=exta

```
Cp. }603\mathrm{ waefs (etc.)
    5 4 3 \text { faegen}
    553 hraefn
    393 graes-
    6 4 8 \text { gedaebeni-}
    776 araef ( }n\mathrm{ )de
    785 endistaeb
    801 baec-
```

Examples of $-e-=x^{1}$ are however not wanting. Epinal, Erfurt and Corpus agree in 9 glosses:-

Ep. 6 teblae=alea
7 teblere = aleator
11 reftras=amites
106 sceptloum $=$ amentis
172 tebelstan=calculus (etc.)
178 teblith = cotizat
633 lebil=manile
894 lerb $=$ scirpea (etc.)
995 lebil=triplia

Erf. tefil
teblere
reftras

| sceptloum | 156 sceptloum |
| :--- | :---: |
| tebil- | 349 tebl- |
| teblith | 497 tebleth |
| lebil | 1269 lebil |
| lebrae | 1804 lebr |
| lebil | 2045 lebl |

Cp. 110 tebl
111 teblere 150 reftras (etc.) 156 sceptloum 349 tebl497 tebleth 2045 lebl

In 1 gloss Epinal and Erfurt have -e- against Corpus $-a e-\ddagger$ :-

Ep. 558 mera =incuba (etc.)
Erf. merae Cp. 1111 maere
In 3 glosses Epinal has $-e$ - against Erfurt and Corpus -ae-:-

Ep. 604 huet=licidus§
744 forsleginum = profligatus \|
1058 cebertuun $=$ uestibulum

Erf. huaet Cp. 1223 huæt
faerlslaeg- 1637 forslaegemum
caebernum 2094 caebr.

+ Cf. also the doubtful form Erf. 269 haeth=calomacus, Cp. 383 haet.
$\ddagger$ Cf. also Ep. 535 a $(n)$ slegaengrae $=$ inpactae, Erf. aslegenra, where Cp. (1096) has onligenre. Here also possibly belongs Ep. 541 unaseddae $=$ inopimum, Erf. unasettce, Cp. 1102 unasaedde, but the word may have $i$-umlaut.
§ If Sweet's explanation (p. 481) is right; I do not know the Latin word.
|| The Epinal form is possibly due to $i$-umlaut, cf. p. 62 n.

In 15 glosses Erfurt has -e- against Epinal and Corpus -ae-:-

Ep. 124 hraebrebletae $=$ bicoca
136 staeblidrae $=$ ballista
$523 r(a) e b s i d$ uuaes $=$ interceptum est
526 raefsed=interpellari
549 in maethlae = in curia
572 haecilae = lacerna (etc.)
642 uuaelreab $=$ manubium
740 haecilae = paludamentum (etc.)
772 aesc $=$ praxinus
908 staer $=$ sturnus
913 haegtis=strigia
930 maestun=saginabant
1006 aespae $=$ tremulus
1017 baest (etc.) = tilio
1042 faestin (etc.) $=$ termofilas $\dagger$

| Erf. hebre-steb- | Cp. 294 haebre263 staef- |
| :---: | :---: |
| est repsit- | 1084 raefsit- |
| refset | 1087 raefsit |
| -medlce | 1110 -maeðle |
| hecile | 1169 haecile |
| uuel- | 1277 wael- |
| hecali | 1474 haecile |
| esc | 1651 aesc |
| sterm | 1911 staer |
| hegtis | 1913 haegtis |
| mestum | 1782 maestun |
| espe | 2048 aespe |
| best | 2022 baest |
| festis | $2006 \mathrm{fae}(\mathrm{s}) \mathrm{ten}$ |

In one gloss (511, wanting in Corpus) Epinal has -ae(araepsid $=$ intercaeptum) against Erf. -e- (arepsit).

In one gloss Corpus has -e- against Epinal and Erfurt ae- :-
Ep. 592 baers=lupus Erf. baers Cp. 1251 bre(r)s
but $-e$ - may be $=\bar{e}$ with lengthening before $r+$ consonant. Cf. North. (Lind.) gers $\ddagger$.

Note. Corpus has -ae- against Ep. Erf. -a- in 968 spaeren, Ep. 460 sparaen, Erf. sparen; 1370 haebern = nepa, Ep. 684 habern, Erf. hafern; so also in 379 haebrn against Erf. 258 hafaern.
B. Erfurt II., III. contain two examples of $-a e-=w^{1}$ :1154 scaer $=$ bemer 1158 scaes $=$ buris
and four examples of $-e-=\infty^{1}$ :-

| 1106 nefern $=$ cancer | 1141 tebleri $($ etc. $)=$ aleator |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1137 rendegn $=$ aeditus templi (etc.) | 1142 tefil $=$ alia |

+ Cf. also Ep. 660 haecid=mugil, Erf. hecid, Cp. 1342 haeced (cf. p. 99).
$\ddagger$ There are two other doubtful cases of Cp. -e- against Erf. (Ep.) -ae-: 34 etspe=abies, Ep. 37 saeppae, Erf. sępae; 619 lepeunince $=$ cucuzata, Erf. 264 laepaeuinca (for hlēapewince ?).
C. Corpus has 67 clear cases of $-a e-$ etc. $=\omega^{1}:-$


> 1054 aetweosendne $=$ inminente
> 1068 raepsung = interceptio
> 1082 refsde=intercepit
> 1123 gegaelen=incantata
> 1194 lehtfaet=lanterna
> 1295 gefaested=macilentus
> 1318 haet=mitra
> 1365 ferescaet $=$ nabulum
> 1441 staeb=olastrum
> 1462 gehaeplice $=$ ordinatus
> 1482 deadraegelum=palearibus
> 1494 faedra=patruus
> 1495 faedran sunu=patruelis
> 1497 naegl=paxillum (etc.)
> 1510 fae' $m$ (etc.) = passus
> 1555 bið slaegen $=$ percellitur
> 1565 slaegen $=$ percellitur
> 1574 hraed = perpes
> $1605 y \mathrm{mb}$ 內$a t=$ plus minus
> 1675 hrae §e = propero
> 1718 slaec = reses
> 1741 getael = rima
> 1745 staeðsu(u)alwe=ripariolus
> 1778 haeb=salum
> 1802 stae $(r)$ blind = scotomaticus
> 1875 fae' $\mathrm{m} m=$ sinus
> 1942 ouuaestm (etc.) = surculus
> 1946 geuuetfaestae = subarrata
> 2061 naescum $=$ tractibus
> 2109 wagn $=$ ueniculum
> 2156 naegl (speru) = unguana
> 2157 fagen = uoti compos (etc.)
> 2165 waetercruce $=$ urciolum $\dagger$

+ To these may be added 579 raednisse=concussionibus, if this stands for hraed- (but cf. Bede C. gloss 75 radnis = pernicitas). Further $-a e-=a^{1}$ is more or less probable in 997 gref $f=$ graffium, 1311 scraeb $=$ merga (cf. O.N. skarfr), 1479 raecedlic = palatina (perhaps a compromise form between recid, reced and *racud: O. Sax. rakud), 1526 aegnan $=$ paleae (cf. p. 99), 1769 spraec $=$ sarmentum (possibly for spaec, cf. O.H.G. spahba, spacho but see also Bosworth-Toller, p. 903 b ); 1148 in bęce=in catamo. Another possible case is 1624 huucl=procax. The following glosses are obscure :858 maere $=$ faecce, 1529 reodnaesc $=$ partica, 1618 scaebe $=$ pole .

On the other hand Corpus has 8 cases of $-e-=\omega^{1}$ : -

| 145 sceptog $=$ ammentum | 484 scohnegl $=$ clauus caligaris |
| :--- | :--- |
| 193 lebel $=$ aquemale | 549 gegederung $=$ conpagem |
| 211 unydecreft $=$ ars plumaria | 1823 leber (etc.) $=$ scirpea |
| 399 heber $=$ caper | 1993 blesum $=$ tedis |

probably also 881 gebellicum- = fiscalis- (cf. p. 135 n.) and perhaps 190 gebrec = apparatum.

From the evidence given above the following conclusions may legitimately be drawn :-

1. The change of $e^{1}>e$ was known to Archetype I. though the spelling -ae- was usually kept.
2. The use of $-e-=w^{1}$ has been extended both in Epinal and in Erfurt, especially the latter.
3. There is not sufficient evidence to show that the use of $-e-=w^{1}$ has been extended in Corpus in glosses derived from Archetype I.
4. The change $c^{1}>e$ is known to Corpus in glosses not derived from Archetype I.

That $c^{1}$ and $e$ had really fallen together is shown by the fact that -ae- occurs several times for $e^{1}$ : - Ep. 842 uuaega against Erf. uuegi, Cp. (1700) wega; Ep. 793 uuaegbradae against Erf. Cp. (1601) uueg- $\dagger$; Erf. 862 cole = rostrum, Cp. 1748 caeli against Ep. celae ; Erf. 303 aebordrotae = colicum against Cp. 558 eoburthrote ; Erf. 728 saegaesetu = promaritima against Ep. saegesetu, Cp. 1631 saegeseotu; Cp. 2050 saes $=$ transtrum against Ep. Erf. 1021 ses ${ }_{\ddagger}{ }^{\dagger}$. The last case is remarkable in view of (3) above. It is best perhaps to attribute the -ae- to Archetype I. and to regard ses as a

[^27]What is the explanation of -eo- in the Corpus forms and in Erf. 411?
correction of Archetype II. In 862 also the -ae- probably comes from Archetype I., $-e$ - being a correction of Epinal.
ii. $e^{2}$.
A. There are 21 clear cases of $-e-=e^{2}$ common to all three texts:-

Ep. 69 hindberie =acinum 91 afcridae (etc.) $=$ auehit

168 cetil=caccabum
182 unilucscel $=$ conquilium
191 gisettae $=$ condidit
204 arectae $=$ concesserim
243 bedd=culcites
441 goduuebb = fasces
467 ferhergend $=$ grassator
542 ba gisettan=inditas
569 egisigrima $=$ larbula
602 hebild=liciatorium
702 nettae =oligia
$707-g i s e t(t) a n=$ ordinatissimam
790 berecorn berendae $=$ ptysones
862 neb (etc.) = rostrum
919 herebaecon=simbulum
942 ansuebidum=sopitis
962 meri (etc.) = stagnum
971 bed=spatula
1026 uueb $=$ telum

Erf. hindbergen Cp. 59 hindberiae aueridae (etc.) 246 aferide
(etc.)
cetil 346 cetil
-scel 499 -scel
gisette 505 gesette
arectae 523 arecte
bedd 610 bed
-ииеь 827 -ииеb
ferhergend 990 forher-
gen(d)
-gisettan 1103 -gesettan
egisi- 1168 egis-
hebild 1219 hebelgerd
nectae 1437 nettae
-girettan 1458 -gesettan
berecorn- 1677 berecorn-
neb (etc.) 1748 neb (etc.)
herebecon 1873 herebenc
ensuebitum 1882 onsuebdum
meri 1921 mere
bed 1899 bed
ииеb 2004 web
$-e-=e^{2}$ is probable also in the following glosses :-

| Ep. 147 edisc $=$ broel | Erf. edisc | Cp. 324 edisc (etc.) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 148 ediscueard $=$ broelarius | ediscuard | 325 ediscueard |
| 714 edischaen $=$ ortigomera | edischenim | 1460 edischen |
| 506 suedilas $=$ instites | suedilas | 1060 sueðelas |
| 925 durhere $=$ sualdam | durhere | 1948 durhere |
| 1053 duerheri $=$ valba | durheri | 2075 durheri $\dagger$ |

+ Possibly also in Ep. Erf. 143 begir=bucina, Cp. 266 beger=baccinia; for berge?

There are 3 cases in Epinal and Erfurt in glosses wanting in Corpus:-

Ep. 73 bisceredae=addicauit Erf. bisceridae
443 restaendum (etc.) $=$ feriatis
781 ilugsegg = papiluus
restendum
ilugseg (Cp. 1487 wiolucscel)
further 8 cases in Erfurt and Corpus in glosses wanting in Epinal :-

Erf. 251 sech $=$ carix
294 huetistan $=$ cox
350 cetil=enunum
352 hindbrere $=$ erimio
376 scel (etc.) = echinus
388 poediberge $=$ elleborus
395 egdae = erpica
396 egderi $=$ erpicarius

Cp. $371 \sec g$
555 huet(e)stan
749 cetil
758 hindberge
716 scel
736 woedeberge
(etc.)
761 eg ॠe
762 egðere

On the other hand Erfurt has $-a e-=e^{2}$ in 3 glosses against Ep. Cp. -e-:

Ep. 219 cordrestae $=\operatorname{caum}(e)$ uniae
745 cebisae $=$ pelices
$1030 u u(e) b=$ textrina

Erf. eordraestae Cp. 360 eordreste $\dagger$ caebis 1540 cebise uųb 2005 webb

Corpus has -ae- in one gloss against Ep. Erf. -e-:-
Ep. 463 segg=gladiolum Erf. secg Cp. 977 saecg probably also $-a e-=e^{2}$ in 1102 unasaedde (cf. p. 100 n .).

In one gloss Erfurt has $-a$ - (doubtless an error) against Ep. Cp. -e- :-
Ep. 618 geregnodae $=$ mendacio con- Erf. geradno- Cp. 1301 geregnaposito
dae
(de) $\ddagger$
C. Corpus has 39 clear cases of $-e-=e^{2}$ :-

$\dagger$ This case is not quite safe, since rast occurs elsewhere also.
$\ddagger$ In Ep. 561 caelith=infridat, Erf. calid, Cp. 1119 kaelið -ae-denotes not $e^{2}$ but $\mathcal{A}^{2}, k a$ - having been restored in place of $\check{c} \mathscr{C}^{1}$. before the operation of $i$-umlaut.

| 509 bergan= corimbos | 1416 uuitsetnis $=$ obiectus |
| :---: | :---: |
| 560 scellum $=$ concis | 1430 egide $=$ occabat |
| 593 musclan scel=conca | 1456 celiwearte $=$ oripilatio |
| 606 hegas = crates | 1457 heldiobul (etc.) =orcus |
| 795 gestin(c)cum = exilia | 1478 settan=pastinare |
| 818 arehtun $=$ expraesserunt | 1487 wiolucscel=papiliuus (cf. p. |
| 821 hergiung = expeditio | 105) |
| 824 herenis= fauor | 1604 setin $=$ plataria |
| 854 gerested $=$ feriatus | 1646 reccileas $=$ praefaricator |
| 1017 woidiberge = helleborus | 1702 egide = raster |
| 1219 hebelgerd=liciatorium | 1851 onsuebbar = sepeliant |
| 1232 hebeld=licium | 1864 meremenin = sirinia |
| 1233 hebeldðred=licia | 1881 suebbo = sopio |
| 1333 heorotberge = mora | 1971 herebrecun $=$ symbulum |
| 1365 ferescaet = nabulum | 2038 goduuebbe = toga |
| 1415 ongen sette $=$ obiecte | 2168 netlan $=$ uerticeta |

$-e-=e^{2}$ is probable also in the two following glosses:831 wěel $($ for sweðel $)=$ fascias $\quad 911$ here $=$ fornaculum $\dagger$

On the other hand there are 4 clear cases of $-a e-=e^{2}$ :-

582 slaege $=$ conlisio
626 waecg = cuneus
$-a e-=e^{2}$ is probable also in
812 wraeccan=extorres

720 asaecgan=edissere
1231 waebtaeg = linea

It is clear that $e^{2}$ was generally expressed by $-e$ - in Archetype I. On the other hand it is possible in view of the Corpus evidence that $-a e-=e^{2}$ was occasionally preserved both in Archetype I. and in the other sources of Corpus. If so it must have been preserved from earlier texts, which would seem to have been written at a time when $e^{2}$ and $e^{1}$ had not yet fallen together. The absence of such forms in Epinal is however somewhat against this hypothesis, at least with regard to Archetype I. No importance can be attributed to the Erfurt forms on account of the frequent confusion of $e^{1}$ (etc.) and $e$ in this text (cf. pp. 101, 103).

[^28]$$
\text { iii. a before } l+\text { consonant. }
$$

The only example of breaking in the glossaries is Ep. 713 fealga $=$ occas, a gloss apparently peculiar to Epinal (but cf. Cp. 1427 faelging $=$ occa). Elsewhere $-a$ - is universal (cf. Dieter, p. 7 f.).

$$
\text { iv. } \quad e^{2} \text {. }
$$

A. There are 4 cases of $-a e-(a, \ell)=e^{2}$ common to all three texts :-


In 2 glosses Erfurt has -e- against Ep. Cp. -ae-:-
Ep. 769 unamaelti sperb $\mathbf{i}=$ pice (etc.) Erf. cinamelti- Cp. 1581 unamaelte838 ohael $\delta i=$ pendulus oheldi 1572 oherldi $\dagger$
B. There is one example of -ae-:-

Erf. 1155 cucaelf=baccula (etc.) (cf. Cp. 2145).
C. There are 13 examples of $-a e-=\alpha^{2}$.

$-e-=\omega^{2}$ occurs in the mutilated form 303 herbid $=$ biper titum.
$\dagger$ Ep. 1079 elm=ulmus, Erf. elm, Cp. 2149 elm, probably has $e^{1}$ (Germ. e) in spite of O.N. almr (cf. O.H.G. elmboum).
$\ddagger$ Cf. Kluge Wb. ${ }^{5}$, p. 103 b.
§ The obscure form 697 ascaeltte $=$ disoluerat is perhaps another example.

There is no ground for supposing that $-e-=c^{2}$ occurred in Archetype I., but the evidence is of course too scanty to permit of a definite statement that the change $c^{2}>e$ was unknown $\dagger$.

$$
\text { v. } \quad Q .
$$

With the exception of one gloss, viz. Ep. 712 onettae $=$ occupauit, Erf. onete, Cp. 1425 onette, Epinal has $-a$ - uniformly. In Corpus on the other hand -0 - is much more frequent than - $a$ - (cf. Dieter, p. 9 f.), while in Erfurt -a- and -0 - are about equally distributed. The representation of $-Q$ - may not perhaps be a matter of great importance for deciding questions of date and dialect; yet it seems worth while to give an analysis of the forms occurring in A, for I think that this affords a criterion for estimating the comparative trustworthiness of Epinal and Erfurt in reflecting the forms of Archetype II. In accordance with the principles laid down on p. 97 , it might reasonably be supposed that the variation between - $a$ - and -o- in Erfurt and Corpus has been inherited from Archetype I., the consistent $-a$ - of Epinal being an innovation. Such a supposition however is not borne out by the analysis. The occurrences are as follows :-

9 glosses have $-a$ - in all three texts:-

Ep. 170 ambras $=$ cados
183 uulfes camb=camellea
$244 \mathrm{haam}=$ camisa

| Erf. ambras | Cp. 347 ambras |
| :---: | ---: |
| -camb | 355 -camb |
| haam | 370 ha $a($ a $)$ |

+ The word edwelle has been omitted from the above lists on account of the perplexing variety of forms which it presents. Its occurrences in the glossaries are as follows:-

| Ep. 1019 eduella $=$ toreum | Erf. eduelli | Cp. 2034 eduuaelle |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1068 edwalla $=$ uertigo | edualla | 2096 eduuelle |

Cp. 137 edúaelle = alueum, 908 edwelle=fortex, 1798 eduuelle=scylla. Possibly this variation may be due to a confusion of two originally distinct stems *wellön- (cf. O.H.G. wella) and *wallia-, *wallian-. It is perhaps worth noticing that well- occurs twice in the Psalter beside more frequent waell- etc. Cf. O.E.T. p. 541 b.

Ep. 490 asuand =hebesceret Erf. ansuand Cp. 1013 asuand
501 hama (etc.)=inluuies secundarum hama (etc.) 1049 hama (etc.)
644 granae $=$ mustacia $\quad$ grance 1343 granae
$825 \mathrm{camb}=$ pecten
839 mand=qualiis
866 ambect = rationato
camb 1564 camb
mand 1689 mand
ambaet 1706 ambaect
4 glosses have -a-in Erfurt and Corpus (lost in Epinal):Erf. 370 an landae = euertigo (etc.)

377 anseot =extentera
380 handmitta =exagium
382 candelthuist $=$ emunctoria

Cp. 769 -lande (etc., see below)
791 ansceat 793 andmitta 745 candeltuist

One gloss has $-a$ - in Epinal and Corpus (wanting in Erfurt) :-
Ep. 222 mand $=$ cofinus
Cp. 532 mand
One gloss has - $\alpha$ - in Epinal and Erfurt:-
Ep. 915 anhaebd=suspensus Erf. anhabd (Cp. 1947 ahaefd) $\dagger$
In 15 glosses Epinal and Erfurt have - $\alpha$ - against Corpus -0-:

| Ep. 41 holthana=acega | Erf. holtana | Cp. 54 holthona |
| :--- | :--- | ---: |
| 43 anga=aquilium | anga | 192 onga |
| 59 hramsa=actula | hramsa | 56 hromsa |
| 60 hramsa crop=acitelum | hramsa- $\ddagger$ | 57 hromsan- |
| 91 an uueg aferidae=auehit | an- | 246 on- |
| 419 ganot (etc.)= fulix | ganot (etc.) | 936 gonot (etc.) |
| 427 suamm=fungus | suamm | 938 suom |
| 576 uuannan (etc.)=liuida (etc.) | uuannan (etc.) 1215 wonnan |  |
|  |  | (etc.) |
| 645 handful beouuas=manticum | handful- | 1278 hondful- |
| 700 suan=olor | suan | 1436 suon |
| 770 angseta=pustula | angreta | 1682 oncgseta |
| 870 framadoenre=remota | fram- | 1724 from- |
| 872 andleac=reserat | andleac | 1725 onlaec |
| 885 bredipannae=sartago | -banne | 1762 -ponne |
| 1036 asuand=tabuisset | assuant | 1981 asuond |

In one gloss Epinal and Erfurt have - $\alpha$ - against Corpus -oe- (error?).
Ep. 187 ambechtae $=$ conlatio
Erf. ambechtae Cp. 501 oembecht
$\dagger$ Another possible case is Ep. 1042 anstigan (etc.) $=$ termofilas, Erf. anstiga (etc.). Sweet takes $a n-=\bar{a} n$-.
$\ddagger 0$ written over the first -a-, cf. Sweet, ad loc.

In 2 glosses Erfurt has $-a$ - against Cp. -o- (lost in Epinal) :-
Erf. 361 stanc =exaltauit
370 an landae=euertigo (etc.)

Cp. 782 stonc
769 on-

In 6 glosses Epinal and Corpus have - $a$ - against Erfurt -0-:

Ep. 4 brandrad=andeda
193 mand = corben
202 anmod=contumax
418 uuananbeam=fusarius
1073 amprae = uarix
1076 ambaer $=$ urna

Erf. brondrad Cp. 157 bran(d)rod
mondi 511 mand
onmod 521 anmood
uuonan. 935 wanan-
omprae 2077 ampre
ombar 2166 amber $\dagger$

In 2 glosses (3 examples) Corpus has -a- against Erf. -o(lost in Epinal) :-
Erf. 337 hondgong=deditio
357 bigongum $=$ exercitus

Cp. 649 handgand
779 bigangum

In 19 glosses Erfurt and Corpus have -o- against Epinal $-a-$ -

Ep. 5 fyrpannae (etc.)=arula 51 an ba halbae=altrinsecus $71 \mathrm{fraam}=$ acris
126 hand(u)yrp = briensis
146 hran=ballena
153 randbeag=buculus
167 ham=colobium
188 sandae $=$ commeatos
424 uuorhana $=$ fasianus
520 anhriosith =ingruerit
624 gespan $=$ murica (etc.)
704 aeggimang $=$ ogastrum
732 scamu = pudor
846 aec ban =quinetiam
946 framlicae $=$ strenue
987 brand=titio
1014 wand = talpa
1045 uиandaeuui(o)rpae $=$ talpa
1095 huuanan huuoega $=$ undecunque
Erf. -ponne (etc.) Cp. 208 -ponne
on- 121 on-
from 60 from
hond- 320 hond-
hron 267 horn
rond- 335 rond-
hom 494 hom
sondae 502 sonde
-hona 830 -hona
onhrisit 1077 onhriose§
gespon 1336 gespon
-gimong 1435 -gimong
scoma 1679 scomo
-don 1695 -ڭon
fromlicae 1917 fromlice
brond 2018 brond
uuond 1973 wond
uuonda- 1975 wonde-
huuonan- 2155 huonan-
In 2 glosses Erfurt and Corpus have -o- (lost in Epinal):-

Erf. 320 se oritmon $=$ dromidarius 394 gebles monung $=$ exactio

Cp. 708 -eorodmon 813 -monung

+ Cf. Kluge, Wb. ${ }^{5}$ p. 85 b. $\breve{a}$ - must have been retained in English.

In 2 glosses Corpus has -o- against Epinal -a- (lost in Erfurt) :-
Ep. 112 uulanclicae $=$ adrogantissime (Erf. gelplih $)$ Cp. 85 wlonclice 784 holopannae= patena 1489 -ponne

To these may be added :-
$\begin{array}{cc}\text { Ep. } \quad 32 \text { ansueop }=\text { atflarat } & \text { Erf. asueus (?) Cp. } 235 \text { onsueop } \\ 535 \text { a } a(n) \text { slegaengrae }=\text { inpactae } & \text { aslegenre } \\ 1096 \text { onligenre }\end{array}$

Also 2 glosses in which Erfurt has - $e-$ :-

Ep. 923 ambaer $=$ situla | 942 ansuebidum $=$ sopitis |
| :--- |

Erf. ember Cp. 1859 omber
ensuebitum
1882 onsuebdum

In 2 glosses Erfurt has -o- in forms which do not appear in Epinal or Corpus:-278 ordoncum (etc.) $=$ commentis (cf. Cp. 545), 1044 -ond- =-et- (cf. the Epinal forms). The additional gloss in Cp. 769 on laste (beside on lande, cf. p. 109) is peculiar to Corpus.

The totals (omitting Ep. Erf. 1042 and the additional gloss in Cp. 769) are as follows:-

| Ep. $-a-58$ | Erf. $-a-32$ | Cp. $-a-23$ |
| :---: | ---: | ---: |
| $-0-1$ | $-0-33$ | $-0-45 \dagger$ |

Now if the variation between -a- and -o- in Erfurt and Corpus had been derived from Archetype I., we should expect that the examples in the two texts would coincide. But it has been shown that such is not the case. Thus corresponding to the 32 examples of $-a$ - in Erfurt we find in Corpus $13-a$ - and $17-0$ - ( 1 -oe- and $1-a$ - for -an-); again corresponding to the 32 examples of -0 - in Erfurt (omitting 712 where all three texts have -0 -), we find in Corpus $21-0$ - and $9-a$ - (the remaining two being peculiar to Erfurt). Archetype II. may have had a few examples of -0 - but it is evident that in the great majority of the Erfurt cases the change from $-a$ - to -0 - has been made independently. The following conclusions may therefore be drawn: 1. Epinal reproduces the forms of Archetype II. more faithfully than Erfurt. 2. The changes introduced in Erfurt are due in part to its English original ; for the substitution of -0 - for $-a$ - cannot

[^29]be attributed to the carelessness or ignorance of a continental scribe. When therefore other changes are found with tolerable frequency (e.g. the substitution of $-e$ - for $-a e-$, cf. p. 101), these must not be dismissed forthwith as errors of the copyist. Such substitutions as $-p$ - for $-p$ - and $-w$ - stand of course on an entirely different footing.
$$
\text { vi. } c e^{5} \text { (cf. p. } 60 \text { ). }
$$
A. Here also there is a remarkable difference between Epinal and Corpus, the former having usually -ae- while in the latter $-e$ - is almost universal.

In one gloss all three texts have -ae- :-
Ep. 419 dopaenid (etc.) = fulix
Erf. dopaenid Cp. 936 doppaenid (etc.)
In 4 glosses Epinal and Erfurt have -ae- against Corpus $-e-$ :-

| Ep. 17 aenid $=$ aneta | Erf. aenit | Cp. 158 enid |
| :--- | :---: | ---: |
| 484 aemil $=$ gurgulio | aemil | 1003 emil |
| 727 faengae $=$ pro captu | faengae | 1630 fenge |
| 852 graennung $=$ rictus | graemung | 1738 grennung |

In one gloss Epinal and Corpus have $-a e-(-\rho-)$ against Erf. -e-:-
Ep. 860 lęndino $=$ rien Erf. lendino Cp. 1740 laendino
In 13 glosses Epinal has -ae- against Erf. Cp. -e- :-

Ep. 98 aend suilcae $=$ adqueue 203 gimaengiungiae $=$ confussione

481 caempan $=$ gladiatores
515 gigremid $=$ inritatus in rixam
538 oberuuaenidae $=$ insolesceret
540 giuuaemmid $=$ infractus
543 gimaengdae $=$ infici
548 feruuaenid=insolens
$580 \mathrm{graemid}=$ lacessit
593 gigraemid $=$ lacessitus
714 edischaen $=$ ortigomera
725 gifraemith $=$ prouehit
759 gifraemid $=$ profetae

Erf. end- Cp. 75 end-
gemengiungae $\begin{array}{r}522 \text { gemen- } \\ \text { giunge }\end{array}$
gemengiungae $\begin{array}{r}522 \text { gemen- } \\ \text { giunge }\end{array}$

| cempan | 984 cempan |
| :--- | :---: |
| gigremit | 1073 gegremid |

oberueneda 1099 oberuue-
nide
geuemmid 1101 ungeuucmmid
gimengda 1104 gemengde
feruendid 1109 foruuened
gremid $\quad 1170$ gremi ${ }^{\delta}$
gigremid 1174 gegremid
-henim 1460 -hen
gifremit 1629 gefremið
gifremid 1643 gefremid

Here also probably belongs
Ep. 589 laempihalt=lurdus Erf. lemphihalt Cp. 1250 lemphalt
In 3 glosses Erfurt has -ae- against Ep. Cp. -e-:-

Ep. 209 stegn=claua
626 anhendi=mancus
750 gimengidlice $=$ permixtum

Erf. steng anhaendi 1266 anhendi gimaengidlica 1542 gemengetlic

In one gloss Erfurt has -cc- against Cp. -e- (lost in Epinal):Erf. 257 amil=cuculio

Cp. 613 cmil
In one gloss Epinal and Erfurt have $-a e-$, $-\rho$ - (wanting in Corpus) :-

Ep. 216 lendnum=clunis Erf. laendum
In 2 glosses all three texts have $-e-$ : $-\dagger$
Ep. 570 menescillingas $=$ lunules Erf, meniscil- Cp. 1242 menelingas
999 lectinadl=tertiana lenctin- 2001 lenctin-
In one gloss Epinal and Erfurt have -e- against Cp. -eo-(-o- having been added later).
Ep. 135 fremu $=$ beneficium Erf. fremu Cp. 286 fre(o) mo (cf. p. 89 n.)
B. -e- appears in 3 glosses :-

1136 lebuendi sax. $=$ adfectuosus (etc.), 1148 cempa $=$ auctoracius (etc.), 1128 lenlibred $a=$ reniculus (cf. Schlütter, Anglia, xix. p. 478).
C. -ae- (-e-) appears in 2 glosses :-

547 gemengan $=$ confici 583 wodhae = coturno

On the other hand $-e$ - appears in 24 glosses :-
99 ellende $=$ afiniculum (etc.) 565 menget $=$ confundit
166 wyrtdrenc $=$ antedo $\quad 640$ suenceth $=$ defatiget
183 fraetgengian=apotasia
301 werna $=$ birbicariolus
645 -end- = -et-
685 meniu $=$ dilectum (etc.)

+ Sweet (O.E.T. p. 544 b) gives also Ep. 659 mengio $=$ margo, Cp. 1285 mengi(o). Ep. Erf. 909 emer $=$ scorelus is perhaps a mistake for omer which appears in the corresponding gloss of Corpus (1810), though Leiden (208) also has emaer.

785 tendistae $=$ exito (etc.)
846 uulencu $=$ fastu
1025 naectgenge $=$ hyna
1055 gemenged=infestus
1172 genge $=$ latrina (etc.)
1195 gremman=lacessere
1262 lendebrede $=$ lumbulos
1649 fremmendum $=$ praestante

1656 fremid $=$ prouehit
1864 meremenin $=$ sirina
1895 benc (etc.) = sponda
1941 ablende $\begin{aligned} \text { © } \\ =\text { = suffundit }\end{aligned}$
1957 avenide = suspenderat
2056 geuuendit $=$ transfert
2097 seng=uectis
2106 menen $=$ uernacula $\ddagger$

Since in A Epinal has altogether 21 clear cases of -ae-$(-\varepsilon-)$ against $6-e$ - (three of the latter being represented by $-a e-,-\varepsilon$ - in Erfurt), it seems probable, in accordance with the conclusions arrived at in the last section (p. 111), that, notwithstanding the comparative rareness of -ae- in Erfurt (10 against $16-e-$ ), -ae- was by far the most frequent type in Archetype II. This seems to harmonise with the unumlauted $-a$ - which appears for $-Q-\S$; while the substitution of $-e$ - for -ae- in Erfurt harmonises with the substitution of -o- for $-a-(<Q)$.

Note. It is to be observed that in Epinal -ae- appears frequently also in the stem of the Participle Present (strimaendi etc.), though examples with $-e$ - are slightly more numerous (cf. Dieter, p. 69, where a list of such forms is given). The appearance of $-e$ - for $-\left(e^{5}-\right.$ here may be due to the fact that such syllables had only a subordinate accent.
vii. $\bar{c}^{1}$.
A. In 19 glosses all three texts have $-e$ - :-

Ep. 72 setungae $=$ aucapatione Erf. setungae Ep. 244 setunge
94 gerlicae = annua
109 megsibbi (etc.) =affectui
114 strelbor $a=$ arcister
137 beer = basterna
190 resung $=$ coniectura

| gernlicae | 170 gerlice |
| :--- | :--- |
| meg- | 103 meg- |
| strel- | 224 strel- |
| beer | 264 beer |
| resung | 504 resung |

$\dagger$ This gloss belongs strictly to A; cf. Erf. 367.
$\ddagger$ Probably also 1423 ogengel $=$ obex.
§ The relationship of -ae- $\left(=a^{5}\right):-a-(<q)$ may be compared with that of $-a e-\left(=a^{2}\right):-a$ - (cf. p. 107).

| Ep. 473 grei $($ etc.) = glaucum | Erf. grei | Cp. 981 grei |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 492 geberu $=$ habitudines | geberu | 1006 geberu |
| 494 thys geri=horno | -geri | 1028 -gere |
| 500 gredig $=$ inhians | gredig | 1046 gredig |
| 551 redboran $=$ iurisperiti | red- | 1160 red- |
| 617 threatmelum = manipulatim | -melum | 1265 -melum |
| 640 ormetum $=$ molibus | ormetum | 1326 ormetum |
| 737 mere uueard=percrebuit | mere- | 1536 mere- |
| 746 leceas $=$ phisillos | leceas | 1578 leceas |
| 751 styccimelum $=$ particulatim | -melum | 1473 -melum |
| 849 leciuuyrt $=$ quiqueneruia | leci- | 1698 leci- |
| 910 heringas $=$ sardinas | heringas | 1781 heringas |
| 1077 bledrae $=$ uessica | bledrae | 2101 bledre |

Here also belongs in all probability :-

Ep. 680 unemotan $=$ negotio
perhaps also :-
Ep. 124 hraebrebletae $=$ bicoca
$705 t(h) r e s=o r e s t a$

Erf. unemo Cp. 1371 une(me)tta

| Erf. -bletae | Cp. 294 -blete |
| :---: | :---: |
| thres | 1455 Əres |

In another gloss Epinal and Erfurt have -e- in the same form (wanting in Corpus) :-

Ep. 583 thres (etc.)=lembum Erf. ðres
In one gloss Epinal and Corpus have $-e$ - against Erf. -ei(cf. p. 117 n .) :-
Ep. 885 bredipannae=sartago
Erf. breiti-
banne
Cp. 1762 brediponne
In one gloss Epinal has -ee- against Cp. -ei- (erased in Erfurt):-

Ep. 164 meeg = contribulus
Cp. 495 meig
In one gloss (lost in Erfurt) Epinal has -e- against Corpus -eg- (for earlier - $\bar{e}^{-1} \overline{3}$-) : -
Ep. 9 strel (etc.) $=\mathrm{a}(\mathrm{u})$ lea
Cp. 249 stregl
In one gloss Erfurt has -e- (wanting in Epinal and Corpus):-
Erf. 834 fotmelum $=$ pedetemptim etc.
$-a e-=\bar{\alpha}^{1}$ never occurs in all three texts in the same gloss.

In 2 glosses Epinal and Corpus have -ae- against Erf. $-e-:-\dagger$
Ep. 445 blaeed=flamma
687 naep $=$ napi

| Erf. bled | Cp. 892 blęd |
| :---: | ---: |
| nep | 1363 naep |

In 2 glosses Epinal has -ae- against Erfurt and Corpus $-e-:-$

Ep. 796 mið naeðlae (a)siuuid=pictus Erf. -nedla- Cp. 1591 -nethleacu
1061 oghuuaer = uulgo (etc.) oeghuuer 2173 oeghuer
In one gloss Epinal has -ae- against Corpus -e- (Erfurt $-i-$ ): -
Ep. 1009 felospraeci=trifulus (Erf. spicici) Cp. 2049 -spreci
In 2 glosses Erfurt has -ae- against Epinal and Corpus $-e-:-$

| Ep. | 763 colbred= perpendiculum | Erf. -draed | Cp. 1548 -丈red |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | ---: |
| 800 birednae =prodimur | biraednae | 1661 birednae |  |

In one gloss Corpus has -ae- against Epinal and Erfurt $-e-$ :-
Ep. 454 blestbaely=follis Erf. blest- Cp. 910 blaes-
In one gloss Corpus has -ae- against Epinal -e- (wanting in Erfurt):-
Ep. 89 ethm =adlitus Cp. 130 aethm
B. Erfurt II. III. have three examples of $-e-$ :-
1104 gregos = anser siluatica 1157 beel=bustum (etc.)
1128 lenlibreda sax. = reniculus (for lendi-, cf. Schlütter, Anglia xix. 478)
C. Corpus has $-e-=\bar{\omega}^{1}$ in 34 glosses :-

66 netl (etc.) =acus
98 ebnwege $=$ aequipensum
146 gredge $=$ ambrones
$174 \mathrm{el}=$ anguila

218 healecas=archiatros
282 bletid=balatus
419 fer $=$ casus
865 iserngre $i=$ ferrugine
$\dagger$ In suae Ep. 843, 844, 865, Cp. 1691, 1692, 1722 against Erf. suue 843, 844 ( 865 suuaeldae is probably an error) shortening may have taken place.

876 §red=filum
912 cese $=$ formaticus (etc.)
957 gebero $=$ gestus
967 grei=gillus
994 wearnmelum=gregatim
1030 bys gere = horno
1051 feringa=inprouisu
1085 feringe $=$ insimulatione
1218 frioletan $=$ libertabus
1224 frioleta $=$ libertus
1233 hebeld dred=licia
1262 lendebrede $=$ lumbulos
1298 geuueted = madefacta

1341 mece $=$ mucro
1448 resigan=opinare
1521 megcualm = parricidio
1528 styccimelum = passim
1554 we $\begin{aligned} & \text { l } \\ & 15\end{aligned}=$ penuria
1594 her = pilus
1731 heðir=renis†
1737 resunge $=$ retiunculus
1790 edmelu=sacra, orgia
1907 strel=stragua
1986 gierende $=$ taxauerat
2104 frioleta $=$ uernaculus
2135 gebreded $($ flaesc $)=($ uiscera $)$ tosta

In the following gloss the Latin is obscure:775 gebero $=$ exegestus
$-e-=\bar{\omega}^{1}$ is probable also in 1228 ðres (etc.) = limbus, 1264 ðresi $=$ lymbo, 1829 goduureci $=$ sceuum, 2136 lelan $=$ uibice ; perhaps also in 1818 uuebung $=$ scena.

In 3 glosses -ei- appears for $-e-\left(\overline{e^{1}}\right) \ddagger$ :
728 deid=effectum
1331 eil $=$ morenula (i.e. mur-)
850 greig $=$ feruginius
On the other hand Corpus has $-a e-(-\rho-)=\overline{e^{1}}$ in 4 glosses:164 waede =antemne ('sails'?) 1852 spręc $=$ sermo 633 suuer $=$ desis 2083 aethme $=$ uapore

So also 1958 glaeres $=$ sucini according to Kluge, Wb. ${ }^{5}$ p. 140, but it seems equally likely that $-a e-$ here $=\bar{b}^{2}$.

In 2 glosses -oe- appears (perhaps simply mistakes):-
28 bloestbaelg = sublatorium (cf. 108 suoesendo=agapem 910)

It is clear $-e$ - must have been the usual type in Archetype I., though a certain number of examples with -ae- were

+ But possibly $h$ - is a mistake for $a-$.
$\ddagger$ This is in all probability purely an orthographic variation. It may be due to diphthongal pronunciation of $-\bar{e}-$, though such an assumption is hardly necessary. Similar cases are found in Northumbrian texts, e.g. deiri beside derorum (originally diphthongal) in Bede, neid- (with ei= $\bar{e}<\overline{\mathscr{X}}^{3}$ ) in Bede's Death-song.
probably preserved from older documents; so also in the other sources of Corpus $\dagger$.

$$
\text { viii. } \quad \vec{c}^{2} .
$$

A. In 12 glosses all three texts have $-a e-(-\ell-):-$

Ep. 192 obaer $(s)$ taelendi=conuincens Erf. -stęlendi Cp. 506 -staelende

194 obaerstaelid $=$ conuicta 560 firgingaett=ibices 704 aeggimung $=$ ogastrum
728 saegesetu= promaritima
731 sume dueli=partim
752 naetendnae $=$ proterentem
785 faehit = pingit
797 faedun = pangebant
845 aengi binga $=$ quoquomodo
938 faecni=subsciuum
1007 haeth = thymus
-staelid -gaett 1037 -gaet aeg. 1435 aeg-
sae- 1631 sae-
-deli 1471 -daeli
naetendnae 1641 naetendne faethit 1582 faehit fcedum 1504 faedun
ae(n)gi- 1701 aenge fae(c)ni 1950 fraecni haedth 2012 haet

Very probably $-a e-=\bar{c}^{2}$ also in the following:-
Ep. 499 uura(e)stendi $=$ indruticans Erf. uracsgendi Cp. 1045 wraestendi 979 huaeg $=$ seru
huaeg
1847 hwcg
The last gloss is repeated (with additional Latin) in Epinal and Erfurt :-
Ep. 982 huaeg $=$ serum (etc.) Erf. huuaeg
In two glosses Erfurt and Corpus have $-a e-,-\varepsilon$ - (lost in Epinal) :-
Erf. 356 auegd $c=$ eluderet
Cp. 734 auıægde
784 araeddun
366 ared $d$ dun=expedier'
In one gloss Epinal has -ae- (wanting in Erfurt and Corpus):-
Ep. 429 aegergelu=fitilium
$\dagger$ Under $\bar{\varpi}^{1}$ should perhaps be classed certain forms from an obscure stem blac-, blec-, 'tetter.' They occur as follows :-
Ep. 139 blec thrustfel=bitiligo
1069 blectha=uitilago

| Erf. blec- | Cp. 296 blaec- |
| :--- | ---: |
| blectha | 2123 blectha |

Cp. 2117 bleci=uitiliginem
Cp. bleci together with the W. Sax. D. sg. blace (frequent in the Leechdoms) seems to point to an earlier N.A. sg. *bl呸ci. Ep. blec etc. are perhaps adjectival forms. It is not likely that these words are related either to blac ('black') or blāc. A connection with $\phi \lambda \epsilon \gamma \epsilon \iota \nu$ etc. is possible.

In one gloss Epinal and Corpus have -ae- against Erfurt $-a-:-$ Ep. 440 aetgaeru $=$ framea Erf. aetgaru Cp. 922 atgaeru $\dagger$

In 9 glosses Erfurt has -e- against Ep Cp. -ae-:-

Ep. 212 raedinnae $=$ condiciones
403 taenil=fiscilla
539 baedendrae = inpulsore
576 -aetrinan $=$-toxica
679 unfaecni=non subsciuum
681 sc(i)nlaecean=nebulonis
747 staegilrae = praerupta
835 uuraeni = petulans (etc.)
1035 raedinnae $=$ taxatione

| Erf. redinnae | Cp. |
| :--- | :---: |
| tenil | 829 raedenne |
| bedandra | 1100 baenil |
| etrina $(n i)$ | 1215 aetrinan |
| unfecni | 1386 unfaecni |
| scinlecan | 1372 scinlaecan |
| stegelre | 1638 staegilve |
| ureni | 1569 wraene |
| redinnae | 1980 raedinne |

C. Corpus has $-a e-(-e-)=\bar{e}^{2}$ in 35 glosses (36 ex-amples):-

| 81 wraene =ad libidines | 1036 hemedo = hymeneos |
| :---: | :---: |
| 105 aegmang=agastrum | 1120 raesde=inruit |
| 147 ymbsuaepe $=$ ambages | 1134 geme (did) = ineptus |
| 167 aetgaere=ansatae | 1397 naenge (carbe $\mathrm{C}_{\text {e }}$ ) = nullo (nego- |
| 251 haelsadon=auspicantur | tio) |
| 253 haelsere= augur | 1401 smaete gold=obrizum |
| 408 lyblaccan = caragios | 1419 folclaemid = obturat |
| 490 caeghiorde $=$ clauicularius | 1433 claemende $=$ offirmans |
| 548 -daele=-portiunculas | 1438 aeggimong=olgastrum |
| 588 oberstaelid = confutat | 1444 hael=omen |
| 634 onsaelid = desolutus | 1446 forclaemde =opilauit |
| 669 geraedit = degesto | 1660 heor'suaepe = pronuba |
| 675 todaeldum=dilotis | 1929 gehnaegith = sternit |
| 805 haclsent=extipices | 1931 astaenid=stellatus |
| 822 baedde=exactum | 1935 aera, aeren scre(op $)=$ strigillus |
| 839 agtero=falarica | 2083 gemacded = uanus |
| 926 faecenlice $=$ fraudulenter | 2135 -flaesc = uiscera- |
| 1024 hnaeggiung=hinnitus | 2143 u(n)maelo = uirgo |

Perhaps also in 1297 obraenit $=$ madidum, 2112 faecnum $=$ ueterno.
$\dagger$ Epinal 206 haetendae $=$ calentes against Erf. hattendae, Cp. 357 hatende is probably a mistake. The verb seems to have belonged originally to the ai-class, cf. O.H.G. heizēn. Ep. 544 taecnaendi (etc.)=index, Erf. taecnendi against Cp. 1105 tacnendi (etc.) is perhaps a mistake of Archetype ir.

On the other hand -e-appears in 4 glosses :-
574 to gelestunne $=$ comitauere
860 ииеgiґ = fefellit
799 scultheta $=$ exactor
872 stictene $l=$ fiscillus

There is no evidence that $-e-=\bar{\omega}^{2}$ occurred in Archetype I. Neither have any substitutions of $-e$ - for $-\alpha e$ - been made by Corpus in the glosses derived from Archetype I. It is probable therefore that the four cases of $-e-=\bar{\omega}^{2}$ which occur elsewhere in Corpus are so copied from older documents and not due to the scribe of Corpus. In Erfurt there has been frequent substitution of $-e-$ for $-a e-$. The following gloss seems rather to point to a substitution of $-e$ - for $-a e-\left(=\bar{\omega}^{2}\right)$ in Archetype I1.:-Ep. 610 men $=$ laris, Erf. meu, Cp. 1183 meau, cf. Cp. 135 meau=alcido, 955 me ( a $u=$ gabea. The form of Archetype II. seems to have been meu, probably a mere mistake-not recognised by the scribe of Epinal ; the form in the Corpus dialect was clearly $m \bar{e} a w<{ }^{*} m \bar{e}^{2} w$. In Cp. 955 there may have been an alteration from $-e$ - to -ea•†.

There is one word which presents great difficulties. It occurs as follows :-

| Ep. 221 haeuni = cerula | Erf. haui | Cp. 444 heawi |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 473 hęuui (etc.) = glaucum | hauui | 981 heauui- |

Erf. 1152 hauiblauum = blata, pigmentum. (Cf. also Leid. 62, 64.)
It is clear that the differences between the three texts are due to deliberate alteration, but I dare not risk a conjecture as to the original forms. The absence of umlaut in the Erfurt and Corpus forms is very curious.

## ix. The $\check{e} a$-diphthongs.

The representation of these diphthongs before guttural and palatal consonants requires separate treatment (cf. p. 129 ff .). Otherwise the only fact that needs mention is the absence of

[^30]any trace of the older forms -aeo-, -aea-, the spelling -eabeing practically consistent $\dagger$.
$$
\mathrm{x} . \quad \bar{x}^{3} .
$$
A. In 4 glosses all three texts have $-e-$ :-

Ep. 605 githuornae fleti=lectidicla- Erf. -fleti Cp. 1205 -flete
tum $\ddagger$
981 sceolhegi=-strabus (etc.) sceolegi 1939 scelege
1075 fleti=uerberatrum
1089 gilebdae $=$ uericundiae concesserim

| sceolegi | 1939 scelege |
| :--- | :--- |
| fletu | 2100 flete |
| gilepdae | 2080 gilefde§ |

gilepdae 2080 gilefde§

In one gloss Erfurt and Corpus have $-e-$ : - ||
Erf. 371 giheldae = exauctorauit Cp. 788 geheende
C. In 8 glosses Corpus has $-e$-:-

71 gebegdum=aduncis
420 ned = casis
605 flete $=$ crama
1011 geheres $t h u=$ heus

1239 anege $=$ luscus
1399 eðung=obolitio
1558 clifhlep $=$ pessum
1776 scete (etc.) =sandalium

In one gloss -ie- occurs :-
774 alieset=eximet.
Though the evidence is limited it is clear that $\bar{a}^{3}$ was usually represented by $-e$ - in Archetype I. and there is no evidence of any change being introduced in any of the texts. There is nothing to prevent us from supposing that the history of $\bar{a}^{3}$ was the same as in Northumbrian and the dialect of the Psalter (cf. p. 4 f.); namely that it fell together early with $\bar{w}^{1}$ and with it underwent the change to $\bar{e}$.
$\dagger$ An archaic form seems to be preserved in Cp. 1117 genaeot $=$ inquilinis.
$\ddagger$ Perhaps for lacte iactatum.
§ The Latin is wanting.
|| It is not clear whether Erf. 899 streide $($ Ep. stridae $)=$ struere, Cp. 1910 streide belongs here (with preterite transformed through the influence of the Pres. strēgan) or to stregdan.

$$
\text { xi. } \quad e^{3} \text {. }
$$

i. Before $r+$ consonant.
A. In one gloss all three texts have -e-:-

Ep. 18 sercae $=$ armilausia Erf. sercae Cp. 210 serce
In one gloss Epinal and Corpus have -e- (the Erfurt form being perhaps High German) :-
Ep. 730 gigeruuid $=$ praetextatus Erf. gigaraunit Cp .1632 gegeruuid
In one gloss Erfurt and Corpus have -e- (lost in Epinal):Erf. 318 uuergend $i=$ deuotaturus Cp. 632 wergendi

In one gloss Epinal and Corpus have -e- against Erfurt -ae-:-
Ep. 186 heruuendlicae $=$ contemptum Erf. haeruend- Cp. 500 heuuend-
In one gloss Erfurt and Corpus have -e- against Epinal -ae-:-
Ep. 1091 auuaerdid=uitiatum Erf. auuerdid Cp. 2131 awended
In one gloss Epinal and Erfurt have -e- against Corpus -ae-:-
Ep. 196 gegeruuednae $=$ conparantem Erf. geger- Cp. 517 gegaer uednae wendne

In one gloss Erfurt has -e- against Corpus -ae- (lost in Epinal):-
Erf. 373 fertd=expeditio
Cp. 790 faerd
C. In 5 glosses Corpus has $-e-:-$

302 erdling $=$ bitorius
810 ferdun=expeditionibus
1434 werdit $=$ officit
581 seruuende $=$ conuenientes

764 huerbende $=$ errabiles
Probably also in 2108 huerb $=$ uertil (? for uertex), cf. Cot. 59 (Lye) hwyrfepole = uorago, syrtis (B. T. p. 576 b).

In one gloss -ae- occurs :-
572 geuaerpte $=$ conualuit
The rarity of the forms with -ae-in C makes it probable that there has been no substitution of $-a e-$ for $-e$ - in the A glosses of Corpus, but rather that these -ae- forms were
taken from Archetype I. It is likely therefore that in Archetype I . there was a variation between $-a e-$ and $-e$-. The latter seems to be the natural spelling of Corpus.

Note. Since breaking before Germ. $z$ is found in mearg (cf. p. 33) : O. Bulg. mozğ̆ etc., it is probable that gerd, gaerd (cf. Kluge, Wb. ${ }^{5}$, p. 136 a) also contains $-e^{3}-$; the word occurs as follows in the glossaries :-
A. Ep. 111 segilgaerd=antempna Erf. -gaerd Cp. 165 -gerd
614 toch gerd=lentum uimen
-gerd 1207 -gerd
C. 319 sundgerd (etc.)=bolides, 1219 hebelgerd = liciatorium, 2134 gerd $=$ uirgultum .
ii. Before (immediately following) $-\chi$ -
$\alpha^{3}$ is here very difficult to separate from $\omega^{4}$.
A. In three glosses all three texts have $-e$-:

Ep. 187 ambechtae $=$ conlatio
Erf. ambechtae Cp. 501 oembecht
49 steeli=accearium
1060 thuelan=uitas
steli
55 steli thuelan 2120 thuclan $\dagger$

In one gloss Erfurt and Corpus have -ae- against Epinal $-e-:-$
Ep. 866 ambect $=$ rationato Erf. ambaet Cp. 1706 ambacct
In one gloss Epinal and Erfurt have ee- against Corpus $-\alpha e-\quad-$
Ep. 857 nectaegalae $=$ roscinia Erf. necegle Cp. 1746 naectegale
In one gloss Epinal and Corpus have -ae- against Erfurt -e-:-

Ep. 673 naecht $(h)$ raebn $=$ noctua Erf. nect- Cp. 1384 naeht-
In the same gloss Epinal and Erfurt have additional forms, Ep. nectigalae, Erf. nacthegelae.

In one gloss Erfurt has $-\varepsilon$ - against Corpus -e- (Epinal being mutilated):-
Ep. 26 uctigalae $=$ achalantis (etc.) Erf. nęcegela Cp. 52 nehtegale

[^31]In one gloss Epinal has -ae- against Erfurt -e- (wanting in Corpus) :-
Ep. 674 naechthraebn $=$ nycticorax

Erf. nethhrabn

C. In 6 glosses Corpus has -ae-:-

1025 naectgenge $=$ hyna $\quad 1857$ gesca slaet (etc. $)=$ singultat
1257 naectegale $=$ luscinia 1955 waexit $=$ surgit
1431 staeli $=$ ocearium $\quad 1991$ ゐuaelum $=$ taenis
In one gloss -ie- appears, 1135 forsliet $=$ intrinicio, if this stands for *for-slieht.

I have included forms of naecht- in this list chiefly because the corresponding forms in West Saxon have $i$-umlaut. But in some at least of its compounds it is perhaps equally likely that $-a e-(-e-)=e^{4}$. On the whole it seems probable that $\alpha^{3}$ was represented both by -ae- and -e- in Archetype I., though the former seems to have been the prevailing type. It is worth noticing that while Archetype I. seems to have had $-e$ - for lengthened $\alpha^{3}$ in two cases, the same sound is represented three times by -ae- in C (Cp. 1431, 1857, 1991).
xii. The diphthongs $\check{\text { éo }}$ and $\check{\imath} u$ ( $\check{\text { c̈ }}$ ).

Sievers (P.B.B. xviII. 414 ff .) has shown that the distinction between the $\check{e} 0-$ and $\bar{\tau} u$ - diphthongs is in general well preserved in the glossaries.

Since Sievers has given a full list of the forms which occur in Epinal and Corpus, it will not be necessary here to discuss the question at length.
A. According to Sievers Epinal has 23 examples of -eu-, $-e o-<$ Germ. eu, e- $\dagger$. The list is not quite correct: 1099 sueor seems to belong to Erfurt, but against this may be put 780 -steor which Sievers seems to have omitted. I am also very doubtful about 795, 960 eorisc ; since the word occurs elsewhere as earisc, it seems more probable that it contains ${ }^{*} e^{4} \chi^{u-}\left(<\right.$ Germ. $\left.{ }^{*} a \chi w a-\right)$ than ${ }^{*}{ }^{*} \chi^{u}$-. In one gloss Epinal

+ It is worth noticing that in 4 glosses (32, 107, 211, 780) Erfurt has -euagainst Epinal -eo-. This seems to point to the retention of an archaism.
has -aeo-: 508 hlaeodrindi. In the corresponding glosses of Erfurt there are no examples of $-i o-$, $-i u$-. In the corresponding glosses of Corpus there is one example of -io-: 1780 cniorisse against Ep. 903 cneorissa, Erf. cneorissae. On the other hand Epinal has -io- for -eo- (<Germ. eu, e-) in 4 glosses ; in two of these the confusion is common to all three texts: 696 criopungae, Erf. cr(i)upungae, Cp. 1405 cr(i)opunge; 879 cnioholaen, Erf. cniolen, Cp. 1759 cnioholen. In one gloss Epinal and Erfurt have -io- against Corpus -e- (regularly, through palatal umlaut, cf. p. 9 f.): 817 -fiogae, Erf. -fi(o)go, Cp. 1507 -flege. In one gloss the mistake is peculiar to Epinal : 1045 uuandaeuui(o)rpae, Erf. -uиerpe, Cp. 1975 -uиеоrpe.

Again Epinal has, according to Sievers, 8 examples of $-i u-,-i o-<G e r m$. $i u, \bar{\imath}$-, besides two doubtful cases. One of the latter ( 97 gitiungi, Erf. get(o)ing, Cp. 185 getiunge) I feel inclined to admit ; contraction seems probable, at least in the Erfurt form, although the reading in not quite safe. On the other hand 12 fio (Erfurt and Corpus 112 have the same form) can scarcely be separated from W. Sax. fleah (flēah ?). The relationship may be the same as between cetg $\bar{\alpha} r$ and cetg $\bar{e} r u$. In that case fio will represent an earlier * $f(\bar{e}(h) u$ < ${ }^{*} d \bar{e}^{3} \chi^{u}$. Among the remainder I should prefer to exclude 76 gihiodum (Erf. gaeadun, Cp. 78 geeodun) as being etymologically obscure. The other seven seem to be free from objection. The corresponding glosses of Erfurt and Corpus have no examples of eeu-, -eo-. On the other hand Epinal has -eo- for -io- (< Germ. iu, $i$-) in two cases: 620 burgleod, 472 cleouuae. The former is wanting in Erfurt, while Corpus (1334) has -liod correctly. In the latter case Erfurt has cleuuue while Corpus (979) has clouue; Sievers does not regard it as a safe example, but the word is probably identical with O.H.G. kliuwa (cf. p. 48).

Lastly Epinal has four examples of -ie- (as $i$-umlaut of $\bar{\imath} 0$, io according to Sievers). In one of these cases 595 fierst the corresponding glosses of Erfurt and Corpus have -i(Erf. firt, Cp. 1176 firsthrof). In 990 georuuierdid, Erfurt agrees exactly with Epinal, while Corpus 2042 has georuuyrde.

Against 983 hunhie(ri) Erfurt has unhyri, Corpus 2040 unhiorde. Lastly against 933 orfiermae, Erfurt has orfermae, Corpus 1902 orfeormnisse.
C. For these glosses it will be sufficient to refer to Sievers (l.c.). The cases in which -eo-, -io- are wrongly used seem to be slightly more numerous than in the A glosses; one or two of Sievers' examples however might reasonably be doubted.

It is probable therefore: (1) that the confusion was known in Archetype I. (cf. Ep. 696, 879); (2) that it has been extended both in Epinal and Corpus. In all the three texts however it is still quite exceptional.

> xiii. Palatal Umlaut.

The partial appearance of this change in the $\check{a}-(\check{\mathscr{c}}-)$ diphthongs presents a most complicated problem. It will be convenient therefore to begin with the $\tilde{e}_{\bar{e}}$, $\check{\imath}$ - diphthongs in which the evidence is more consistent.
$e o . \quad$ i. Immediately before $-\chi$ -
A. In one gloss all three texts have $-e-:-$

Ep. 738 borgifect $=$ perduellium Erf. dorhgife- Cp. 1537 borhgefeht cilae
To this may be added in accordance with the theory propounded on p. 19 f. :-
Ep. 1062 suehoras $=$ uitelli Erf. sueoras Cp. 2121 sueoras
In one gloss Erfurt and Corpus have $-e$ - (wanting in Epinal) :-
Erf. 349 ceapcnext $=$ empticius
Cp. 742 ceapcneht
There are no examples of -eo-.
ii. Before $r+$ (guttural or palatal) consonant.
A. In 5 glosses all three texts have $-e-$ :-

Ep. 132 berc $=$ beta (etc.)
686 duerg $=$ nanus (etc.)
699 -uиerci= opere-
831 duuergaedostae $=$ pulium
881 thuerhfyri $=$ salebrae

| Erf. berc | Cp. 285 berc |
| :--- | ---: |
| duerg | 1362 duerg |
| uerci | 1450 werci |
| duergae- | 1686 duerge- |
| thuerh- | 1761 buerh- |

In one gloss Erfurt and Corpus have $-e$ - against Epinal -ео-:-

Ep. 556 algiuu(eo)rc $=$ ignarium Erf. algiuerc Cp. 1040 aalgewerc
B. In 2 glosses Erfurt has $-e$-:

1175 bergas $=$ colles $\quad 1176$ duerh $=$ humiliamanus
C. In 4 glosses Corpus has $-e-$ :-

298 berc $=$ bitulus
1164 mid̀ ferh=iuuentus

1426 baangeberg=ocreis
1715 geberg $=$ refugium perhaps also in 1994 duerc $=$ teter (or for deurc ? ).

On the other hand Corpus has -eo- in 1771 licbeorg $=$ sarcofago and -io- in 1672 briostbiorg = propugnaculum.
iii. Before $l+$ consonant $(\chi, c)$.
A. In 2 glosses all three texts have $-e-$ :-
Ep. 233 elch $=$ ceruus $\quad$ Erf. elch Cp. 443 elh

In one gloss Epinal and Erfurt have -eo- against Corpus
C. In one gloss Corpus has $-e o-$ : eola = damma (etc.) after 627 (omitted in O.E.T.), cf. Leid. 139.
$\bar{e} 0$.
A. In one gloss all three texts have -io-:-

Ep. 879 cnioholaen $=$ ruscus Erf. cniolen Cp. 1759 cnioholen
In one gloss Epinal and Erfurt have -io- against Corpus $-e-:-$

Ep. 817 buturfiogae = papilo Erf. -fi(o)go Cp. 1507 -flege
In one gloss Erfurt has -eo- against Corpus -e-:-
Erf. 295 theoh=coxa
Cp. 556 thegh
C. In 2 glosses Corpus has $-e$ - :-

1194 lehtfaet = lanterna
1354 flege $=$ musca
On the other hand Corpus has -eo- once: 1832 peohsaex $=$ semispatium.

## $i u(i o)$. i. Immediately before - $\chi$-.

A. In one gloss all three texts have $-i$ : :-

Ep. 10 frictrung $=$ ariolatus
Erf. frictung Cp. 196 frihtrung
C. In three glosses Corpus has $-i-$ :

1391 rihtebr $(e d)=$ noma (cf. O.E.T. 1728 wrixlindum $=$ reciprocis p. 667)

$$
1736 \text { uurixlende }=\text { reciprocatu }
$$

ii. Before $r+$ consonant.
A. In 2 glosses all three texts have - $i$ - :-

Ep. 560 firgingaett $=$ ibices
792 birciae $=$ populus

Erf. firgin- Cp. 1037 firgenbirciae 1609 birce
iii. Before $l+$ consonant.
A. In one gloss all three texts have -i- :-

Ep. 628 milcib $=$ morgit Erf. milcid Cp. 1323 milcit
Here also probably belongs Ep. 781 ilugsegg=papiluus, Erf. ilugseg (Cp. 1487 wiolucscel) ; the word is identical with eolhxsecy in the Runic Poem, and that $-u$ - is svarabhaktic is shown further by the form ilcs in the Alphabet.
C. Corpus has $-i$ - in one gloss: milcit $=$ mulgit (after 1347, cf. O.E.T. p. 667).
$\bar{u} u$.
No cases of Germ. $\bar{u} u$ before gutturals or palatals happen to occur. Germ. $\bar{\imath}$ (with breaking according to p. 18 f.) occurs in the following glosses :-
A. Ep. 546 bitui $(c) n$-=inter1043 dislum =temonibus
Erf. 384 siid=excolat
Erf. bituichn Cp. 1107 bitun
dixlum 2007 bixlum Cp. 800 siid
B. Erf. $1147 d i x l=$ arquamentum
C. Cp. 205 waegnebixl $=$ archtoes, 1118 かiendi (etc.) =indolis
probably also in 1310 bituihn = mentagra, a gloss which seems to be due to a misunderstanding.
$-i$ - is therefore universal except in Cp. 1107 bitun which may be due to a change similar to that in widu $>w u d u$ operating before palatal umlaut took place.

It is clear that in the case of these diphthongs the type with palatal umlaut was the prevailing one in Archetype I. Omitting all doubtful cases and glosses which may show contraction through loss of intervocalic $-h$-, we find 13 examples
of $-e-,-i$ - common to the three texts, besides one (Erf. 349) which is lost in Epinal. On the other hand there is but one gloss with -io- which is common to the three texts (Ep. 879), and this is not a safe example in spite of Leid. 127, 250 , for the compound may have been re-formed; cneowholen is the regular form in later (West Saxon) texts. It is noteworthy that this gloss also has -io- for -eo-. Epinal and Erfurt have -eo- in two glosses against Corpus -e-, Epinal once has -eoagainst Erfurt and Corpus -e-, and Erfurt once has -eo- against Corpus -e- in a gloss lost in Epinal. Corpus always has $-e-,-i$ - except in the two glosses 1107, 1759, neither of which is a perfectly safe case. It would be rash to assume that the -eo-, -io- of Epinal and Erfurt represented the forms of Archetype I. in every case better than the $-e-,-i$ - of Corpus. Palatal umlaut was no doubt a characteristic of the dialect of Corpus, yet in the C glosses 4 examples of -eo-, -iohave been preserved against 11 of $-e-,-i$. It is also to be noticed that while palatal umlaut always gives $e<\check{e} 0$, $i<\breve{\tau} u(\breve{\imath} o$ ), in fiogae (as also in cnioholaen) the diphthongs are confused; fliogae and flege are obviously forms of different dialects, but it seems to me just as likely that the latter represents the form of Archetype I. as the former. The -io- may be due to Archetype II., as also the -eo- in Ep. Erf. 981, Erf. 295, while in 556 it may be no older than Epinal.
cea. i. Immediately before $-\chi$ -
A. In 2 glosses all three texts have -ae- :-

Ep. 13 aex =axis Erf. aex Cp. 259 aex
836 aecta $(t) h=$ perpendit aechtath 1570 aehta夭
In one gloss Epinal and Erfurt have $-e$ - against Corpus -ae-:-
Ep. 928 brectme (etc.) = strepitu Erf. bretme Cp. 1916 braechtme
In one gloss Erfurt has $-a$ - against Corpus -e- (lost in Epinal) :-
Erf. 326 th $(u)$ achl=delumentem
Cp. 641 ðhuehl
In one gloss Epinal has -ea-, Erfurt -e-, Corpus -ae-:Ep. 555 leax $=$ isic Erf. lex Cp. 1155 laex

In one gloss all three texts have -ea-:
Ep. 247 leactrocas = corimbus
Erf. leactrocas Cp. 540 leactrogas but the word is obscure and is possibly a compound of lēac. Emendations are suggested by Schliitter, Anglia, xIx, p. 113 f.
B. Erfurt contains one example of $-a e-$ : 1149 aex $=$ axis, and probably one of $-e-$ : 1167 echtheri $=$ censor etc.
C. In 7 glosses Corpus has -ae-:-

```
1 8 6 \text { aexfaru=aparatu}
364 faexnis=capillatur
6 2 5 \text { saex=culter}
896 blodsaex=flebotoma
    943 waexcondel=funalia (etc.)
767 laex=essox
```

perhaps also in 1029 geluechtnad (for gelaechtrad ?)=hoctatus, though the Latin is obscure. For 1576 slahae, cf. p. 139.

Here also may belong some at least of the forms of naecht(cf. p. 123 f.). Contraction is found in Cp. 659 flean $=$ deglobere, 1892 ear $=$ spicas; the first vowel before the contraction could be either $c a(e a)$ or $c$.
ii. Before $r+$ consonant.
A. In 2 glosses all three texts have -ae- :-

Ep. 588 maerh=lucanica 811 faerh $=$ porcellus

Erf. marh faerh

Cp. 1249 marh
1616 faerh

In 2 glosses Erfurt and Corpus have -ae- against Epinal -ea-:-

Ep. 409 uue(a)rgrod=furca
547 fristmearc $=$ intercapido

Erf. uaerg- Cp. 930 waergrood (=furcimen)
1108 -maerc

In one gloss Erfurt and Corpus have $-e$ - against Epinal -ea- :-

Ep. 227 mearisern $=$ cauterium
Erf. merisaen Cp. 362 merciseren
In one gloss Epinal and Corpus have -ea- (wanting in Erfurt):-

Ep. 652 bearug=maialis
Cp. 1284 bear゙ug
C. In 5 glosses Corpus has -ae-:-

| 1121 gemaercode $($ etc. $)=$ inpingit | 1772 haerga $=$ sacellorum |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1191 baercae $=$ latratus | 1827 sparca $=$ scintella |

1255 haerg = lupercal
-e- occurs once: 1308 merg=medulla; -ea- once: 153 mearh $=$ amilarius (cf. Schlütter, Anglia, XIX. p. 111.)
$\bar{\omega} a$.
A. In 2 glosses all three texts have -ae-:-

| Ep. | 64 laec $=$ ambila | Erf. laec |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 846 aec pan=quinetiam | aec- | Cp. |
|  | 154 laec $\dagger$ |  |
| 1695 aec- |  |  |

In one gloss Erfurt and Corpus have $-a e-$, $-\ell$ - (lost in Epinal):-

Erf. 265 gẹc $=$ cuculus
Cp. 518 gaec
In one gloss Epinal and Corpus have -ae- against Erfurt -e- :-
Ep. 62 hymnilaec $=$ ascolonium Erf. -lec Cp. 229 -laec
In 2 glosses Erfurt and Corpus have -e- against Epinal -ae-:-
Ep. 16 garlȩc=alium
919 herebaecon=simbulum

| Erf. -lec | Cp. 113 -leec |
| :---: | ---: |
| -becon | 1873 -benc |

In one gloss Epinal and Corpus have -e- against Erfurt -ce-:-

Ep. 1093 -egan $=$-oculo
Erf. agan Cp. 2133 egan $\ddagger$
In one gloss Corpus has $-e$ - against Erfurt $-a$ - (lost in Epinal) :-
Erf. 263 iaces sura=calciculium
Cp. 380 ieces surae
In one gloss Erfurt has $-e$ - in a form peculiar to that text:-

Erf. 676 leccressae $=$ nasturcium
(Ep. tuuncressa, Cp. 1359 tuuncressa)
$\dagger$ Schlütter, Anglia, xix. p. 469 f. suggests caec, ampul(1)a.
$\ddagger$ Erf. 316 aegur $=$ dodrans, Cp. 702 egur is obscure; cf. Schlütter, Anglia, xix. p. 471.

In 2 glosses Erfurt and Corpus have -ae- against Ep. -ea-:-
Ep. 153 randbeag=buculus 591 leag=lexiua
Erf. rondbaeg Cp. 335 -baeg
lag
1175 laeg

In 2 glosses Epinal and Erfurt have -ea- against Corpus -ae-: -

| Ep. 872 andleac $=$ reserat | Erf. andleac | Cp. 1725 onlaec |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 964 teac $=$ sceda | teag | 1821 taeg |

In one gloss Epinal has -ea- against Corpus $-\ell$ - (the Erfurt form being mutilated):-
Ep. 813 fleah =pulix Erf. fioc Cp. 1683 fech
In 2 glosses Epinal has -ea-, Erfurt -e-, Corpus -ae-:-
Ep. 63 geacaes surae =accitulium Erf. gecaes- Cp. 58 geces 895 bradae leac $=$ serpillum -lec 1835 -laec

In one gloss Epinal and Erfurt have -ea- against Corpus -e-:
Ep. 992 sigbeacn = tropea (etc.) Erf. beanc Cp. 2043 sigebecn
B. Erfurt has one example of -ae-: 1156 randbag $=$ bucula, umbo. Cf. also 1101 acacsore $=$ acidus.
C. In 9 glosses Corpus has -ae-:-

| 19 taeg=mantega | 1339 baeg = munila |
| :--- | :--- |
| 176 caecbora $=$ antulus | 1667 haehsedlum $=$ prorostris |
| 448 ynnilaec $=$ cepa | 1960 under haehnisse $=$ sub cono |
| 1231 waebtaeg $=$ linea | 1971 herebæcun $=$ symbulum |

1300 taeg = mantega
Corpus has -ea- in 218 healecas $=$ archiatros ; probably also in 965 geac = geumatrix ; -e- perhaps in 2010 tegum (etc.) $=$ tehis ( ${ }^{2}$ ).

Omitting all doubtful forms the results of this analysis in the A forms may be tabulated as follows: In the short diphthong cea (i) before $-\chi$ - we find in Epinal $1 e a, 2 a e, 1 e$; in Erfurt $2 a e, 2 e, 1 a$; in Corpus $4 a e, 1 e$; (ii) before $r+$ consonant (where perhaps lengthening may have taken place) Epinal has 4 ea, 2 ae; Erfurt $4 a e, 1 e$; Corpus 1 ea, $4 a e, 1 e$. In the diphthong $\overline{e x} a$ Epinal has 8 ea, 5 ae, $1 e$; Erfurt $3 e a, 6 a e, 6 e, 1 a$; Corpus $11 a e, 5 e$. In the C
glosses of Corpus we find :-for $\omega a$ (i), 7 ae; for cea (ii), $1 e a, 5 a e, 1 e$; for $\bar{e} a, 1$ (probably 2) ea, $9 a e$.

The question how far palatal umlaut prevailed in Archetype I. depends obviously on the relative importance attached to the evidence of the three texts. It is difficult for three reasons to resist the suspicion that the number of cases with eea- has been increased in Epinal. 1. There can be no doubt that in the case of the $e$-, $i$-diphthongs the forms with palatal umlaut were in the majority in Archetype I. 2. It is clear also that forms with -ae- existed in Archetype I. Now $\check{\mathscr{C}}\left(\breve{e}^{4}\right)$ can arise by palatal umlaut from $\check{e} a$ but not from $\check{e} a$. If these forms had been retained by Archetype I. from earlier texts we should rather have expected to find -aea-. It does not seem to me very likely that -ea- was written for $\check{\varrho} a$, for -aea- is common in early Kentish charters (cf. p. 95). 3. To judge from the C glosses the regular form in Corpus seems to be -ae-; the proportion in A is 19 ae: $7 e$ e in C 21 ae: $1 e$. This rather points to the presence of $-e$ - in an older text $\dagger$. Lastly it may be mentioned that in Erfurt $-e$ - is a rare substitution for -ea(though it occurs occasionally), while for -ae- it is exceedingly frequent.

To sum up, I am inclined to think that the number of forms which showed palatal umlaut in Archetype I. was greater than the evidence of Epinal would lead one to believe. Forms with -ea- no doubt existed (e.g. probably in bearug, Ep. 652), but their number has been increased both by Archetype II. and by Epinal ; so also with -eo-. At the time when palatal umlaut operated in this dialect the three diphthongs $\breve{厄} a$, $\check{e} 0, \breve{\imath} u(\breve{\imath} o)$ must have remained quite distinct, but it is not unlikely that Archetype I. had examples of $-e$ for $\bar{e}^{4}$. The number of examples of -ea-, -eo- does not seem to have been increased either by Erfurt or Corpus. The former has, as usual, frequently substituted $-e$ - for $-a e-$. In Corpus the regular form for $\breve{e}^{4}$ seems to be -ae-; the docu-

[^32]ments from which the C glosses of Corpus were drawn probably contained at least as great a proportion of forms with -eo-, -ea- as Archetype I.

## xiv. Labial and Back Umlaut.

In regard to the effect produced on $-e^{1}$ - by a following back or labial vowel there is a remarkable difference between Epinal and Erfurt on the one hand and Corpus on the other. In the two former texts with the exception of one gloss which is not quite clear, Ep. 1064 geolu=uenetum, Erf. geholu, Cp. 2095 geolu, -e- is retained consistently. On the other hand in Corpus -eo- is more than twice as frequent as -e- (cf. Dieter, p. 39 f.), the proportion being about the same in the A and in the C glosses. That this umlaut must have operated at an early period in the dialect of Corpus is shown not only by the consistent appearance of $-e$ - (through palatal umlaut) before $-c-,-g-$, but also by the presence of $-e 0-$ in such forms as 751 beorende, 1054 aetweosendne.

The same is true on the whole in regard to the umlaut of $-i$, though the proportion of forms with $-i$ - in Corpus is somewhat greater. The initial group wi- is however (as in early Northumbrian, cf. p. 85 f.) affected by a following $-u-$ even in Epinal in one gloss, 430 uudubil = falces, but the corresponding gloss in Erfurt has uuidu-. Possibly Erfurt has a form of the same kind in $169 u(u)$ slucreud $=$ coccum bis tinctum, where Epinal has uuiloc-. Erfurt has some curious examples of $-y$ - in this position: 182 unylucscel $=$ conquilium, Ep. uuiluc-, Cp. 499 wiloc-; 559 uuydublindce $=$ inuolucu, Ep. uıidu-, Cp. 1116 uиdu-; 347 uиydumer $=$ echo, Cp. 715 wudu-.

It is difficult to ascertain whether labial umlaut of $-a$ was known in Archetype 1. It is clear that - $\alpha$ - occurred frequently before $-u$-. On the other hand, eea- occurs only in Ep. Erf. 978 hreathamus =stilio uel uespertilio, Ep. 1098 hreadaemus, Erf. hreadam's=uespertilio. Corpus has in both cases $(1924,2103)$ hraeðeтиuus. But the etymology of the
word is not clear (cf. hreremus), and -ea- may be - $\bar{e} \alpha-$; Corpus seems to have taken the gloss as two words hraeðe mus. Greater importance is to be attached to certain forms with -ae- which may represent $\alpha^{4}$ from earlier $a \alpha$ by palatal umlaut, as in the dialect of the Psalter. Such forms occur in four glosses.

Ep. 19 haeguthorn=alba spina
956 haeguthorn = spina alba
Erf. 321 braedlaestu aesc = dalaturae
Ep. 603 slegu $=$ lihargum

| Erf. hagudorn Cp. 114 hea(go)đorn |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| heguthorn | 1897 haeguđorn <br> 703 braudlast- <br> ecus |
| slagu | 1230 slaegu |

The last gloss is obscure and probably corrupt (cf. Schlütter, Anglia, xix. p. 109 f.). In Erf. 321 - u aesc may possibly be a mistake for aecus, and this form (as also Cp. ecus) may be identical with Ps. ecesum (73.5) which seems to have $c e^{4}$. But the identification is scarcely necessary, for originally there seems to have been a stem ${ }^{*} a k^{u} i s$ - (cf. Goth. aqizi) beside *akus-, so that $c^{1}$ is not impossible. The two remaining glosses probably have a common origin. The existence of haegu- beside such forms as (Ep. 629) ragu would seem to show that there were dialectic differences in the sources of Archetype I; yet for such a hypothesis there is otherwise surprisingly little evidence. $-a e-=\mathscr{C}^{4}$ is not however absolutely certain, for in other texts we find hcegðorn (cf. hcegsteald- beside hagustald-); it is possible therefore that haegu- may be due to a confusion of haegand hagu-. In addition to the cases mentioned above, Corpus seems to have an example of $-\alpha e-=\mathscr{C} e^{4}$ in 1559 $h a(e) c a=$ pessul against Ep. Erf. 803 haca. Corpus has also an example of -ea- against Ep. Erf. -a- in 1999 bordðeaca, Ep. 997 borohaca (etc.), Erf. brodthaca (etc.) $\dagger$. Another possible case is 599 cleadur = crepacula (etc.) against Ep. 218 claedur, Erf. cledr (perhaps <*kladr, *klcedr-), but the

+ The same explanation would be possible in the case of the following forms : 96 geabuli=aere alieno against Ep. Erf. 115 gaebuli; 648 -geabuli= -pensio against Erf. 336 gebil; 813 geabules monung=exactio, against Erf. 394 gebles-. But it is more probable on the whole that geabuli is due to palatal diphthongisation; the inflection would regularly be ${ }^{*} 3 a b l,{ }^{*}$ cetlces etc.; this has been levelled out by the transformation of ${ }^{*} 3 a \bar{\jmath} l$ to ${ }^{3} a b l$ (whence geabul) etc.
word is obscure. In the C glosses of Corpus there are forms both with -ea- and -ae- $\left(=e^{4}\right)$ : 283 reagufinc $=$ bariulus, 665 onseacon $=$ detestare, $881 w c(g) n f e a r u=$ fiscalis (etc.), 914 geaduling $=$ fratuelis, 1188 weagat $=$ labat, 1496 geaduling $=$ patruelis, 2086 geuue (ada) $=$ uada breuia; 693 aslaecadun $=$ dimisis, 807 naec $(a) d$ tunge $=$ exerta lingua and perhaps 317 hlaegulendi = bombosa, 1853 rego $=$ sedulium (cf. also beosu, meottoc, p. 103). It is very hard to arrive at any definite conclusions on the evidence. The forms with -easeem to show that labial umlaut had operated to some extent in the dialect of Corpus; this umlaut seems to operate even before guttural consonants. On the other hand the forms with $-a e-$ in C are probably copied from earlier texts, in which $-a$ before -gu- -ku- etc. was treated as in the Psalter.

On the whole it seems probable that labial and back umlaut were very rare in Archetype I. It may reasonably be doubted whether that text contained any examples at all.

## xv. Palatal Diphthongisation.

This occurs rarely and apparently only before back vowels. The following examples are found in the A glosses:-

| Ep. 736 uuicingsceadan $=$ piraticum | Erf. -sceadae | Cp. 1579 -scea⿱艹 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| 853 sceaba (etc.) $=$ runcina | sceaba | 1755 sceaba |
| 902 sceadu $=$ scena | sceadu | $(1801$ scadu) |
| Erf. 991 sceadugeardas $=$ tempe | (Ep. scaedu-) | 1998 sceadu- $\dagger$ |

In Corpus 1954-sceadu seems to have been substituted for suadu, which occurs in the other two texts (Ep. Erf. 972). It is probable also that geabuli etc. belong here (cf. p. 135 n .).

In the C glosses of Corpus we find 1424 geocstecca $=$ obicula $\ddagger$.

[^33]
## xvi. The loss of interior -h-.

Under this heading it will be convenient to discuss the treatment of $-h$ - (< Germ. $\chi$ ) between vowels, after $r, l$ before vowels, and after vowels before voiced consonants. In all these cases the loss of $-h$ - is due to the same causes, though the reduction may not have taken place at the same time. The loss of $-\chi$ - in such forms as Ep. 1043 dislum is a different question.
A. In 2 glosses all three texts have $-h$ - (including forms in which - $h$ - has been transposed or other letters added) :-

Ep. 785 faehit $=$ pingit
799 nihol=pronus
$\begin{array}{cr}\text { Erf. faethit } & \text { Cp. } 1582 \text { faehit } \\ \text { nihol } & 1659 \text { nihold }\end{array}$

The latter form was originally a compound but was in all probability no longer felt to be such at the time when intervocalic $-h$ - was lost. On the other hand in the following three glosses $-h$ - may have been restored through the influence of the uncompounded forms, though dureras occurs elsewhere :-

| Ep. 925 du•rhere $=$ sualdam | Erf. durhere | Cp. 1948 durhere |
| :---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1053 du(e)rheri=ualba | durheri | 2075 durheri |
| 1063 tholicae $=$ uscidae | tochtlicae | 2170 tohlice $\dagger$ |

In 5 glosses $-h$ - is preserved in Epinal and Erfurt, lost in Corpus:-

Ep. 546 bitui $(c) n$-=inter-
884 furhum $=$ scrobibus
1066 uulohum = uillis
1080 ryhae $=$ uillosa
1081 linnin ryhae $=$ uilla

Erf. bituichn Cp. 1710 bitun $\ddagger$ furhum furum (after 1793, omitted in O.E.T.) uulohum 2122 uuloum ryhae 2126 rye -ryhae ;2128 ryee

Here also may be mentioned a form with $-h$ - after $-\boldsymbol{b}$-:-
Ep. Erf. 854 flitere in ebhatis=rabulus
$\dagger$ Erf. 326 th(u)achl $=$ delumentem, Corpus thuehl probably contain $-\chi \chi$-, ef. p. $71 n$.
$\ddagger$ It is possible however that there may have been a form -*twī $\chi \chi_{0}^{n}$ originally beside -*twixn. Its origin would be due to the same causes as *pwcaxर!, cf. p. $71 n$.

In one gloss (wanting in Erfurt) $-h$ - is preserved in Epinal, lost in Corpus ; but the Latin is obscure :-
Ep. 654 seyhend $=$ maulistis

$$
\text { Cp. } 1286 \text { scyend }
$$

In 3 glosses $-h$ - is preserved in Epinal, lost in Erfurt and Corpus:-

Ep. 3 thohae =argillus 981 sceolhegi=strabus (etc.)
1062 suehoras $=$ uitelli

| Erf.th $(0)$ e <br> sceolegi | Cp.207 thoae <br> sueoras |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1939 scelege |  |
| 2121 sueoras |  |

In one gloss (wanting in Corpus) $-h$ - is preserved in Epinal, lost in Erfurt :-
Ep. 240 chyae $=$ cornicula ciae
In one gloss $-h$ - is preserved in Erfurt, lost in Epinal and Corpus:-
Ep. 1020 ryae $=$ tapeta Erf. hryhae Cp. 1977 rye
In 8 glosses $-h$ - is lost in all three texts :-
Ep. 49 steeli=accearium
97 gitiungi=apparatione
106 sceptloum=amentis
795 eorisc $=$ paperum
797 faedun=pangebant
881 thuerhfyri= salebrae
960 eorisc $=$ scrirpea
1060 thuelan=uitas

| Erf. steli | Cp. $\quad 55$ steli |
| :--- | ---: |
| get(o)ing | 185 getiunge |
| -loum | 156 -loum |
| eorisc | 1503 eorisc |
| fadum | 1504 faedun |
| -fyri | 1761 -fyri |
| eorisc | 1823 eorisc (etc.) |
| thuelan | 2120 thuelan |

Probably also in the following gloss:- $\dagger$
Ep. 12 filo=albugo
Erf. fio
Cp. 112 flio (cf. fleah in Cura Pastoralis)

Indirect evidence for the loss of $-h$ - is given also by the following glosses :-
$\begin{array}{ccc}\text { Ep. } 610 \text { men=laris } & \text { Erf. meu } & \text { Cp. } 1183 \text { meau (cf. } \\ 1005 \text { iuu }=\text { taxus } & \text { p. } 120 \text { n.) } \\ & \text { iuu } & 1972 \text { iuu (cf. p. } \\ & & 49 \text { n.) }\end{array}$

+ I have omitted several words, on the etymology of which I was in doubt, both in A and C. A careful investigation would probably bring other examples of contraction through loss of intervocalic $-h$ - to light. The above list is however sufficient to show that the loss of $\cdot h$ - was known in Archetype I .

In one gloss $-h$ - is lost in Epinal and Corpus (wanting in Erfurt) :-
Ep. 489 scaeptloan $=$ hastilia telo- Cp. 1005 scaeptloan
rum

In 3 glosses $-h$ - is lost in Erfurt and Corpus (wanting in Epinal) :-

Erf. 320 se oritmon $=$ dromidarius
384 siid = excolat
1099 sueor $=$ uetellus

Cp. 708 se corodmon
800 siid
2107 sueor
B. $-h$ - is lost in Erf. 1161 raa = capriolus and probably in 1114 sloae $=$ fisuras, scisuras. A possible case of its preservation is 1129 thrahit = ringitur (dic hoo more canum).
C. In 2 glosses $-h$ - is preserved:-

141 tahae=allox
403 raha $=$ capria
Perhaps also in the obscure gloss 1310 bituihn $=$ mentagra (but cf. p. 137 n.). In 1960 under haehnisse $=$ sub cono $-h$ - has probably been restored from haeh, cf. hehnisse twice in the Psalter, beside the regular heanis(se) which seems to show that $-h$ - was lost before $-n$ - before the operation of palatal umlaut. In 46 muha $=$ aceruus $-h$ - seems to represent $-\boldsymbol{-}$ since mugan occurs elsewhere (cf. O.N. múgi). A more certain example of $-h-=-3$ - is 1.576 slahae $=$ pectica. The forms which occur elsewhere are slege and sloe. The original forms were no doubt: N. sg. ${ }^{* s l c e y ̌} c$, A.G.D. sg. ${ }^{*}$ slajan; the modern form comes regularly from ${ }^{*}$ sleus $(x$, , while the Corpus form slahae (i.e. *slaz $(e)$ is a transformation of this through the influence of *slajan.

In 13 glosses - $h$ - is lost :-

| 372 waeter> rum $=$ canalibus | 1118 siendi (etc.) = indolis |
| :---: | :---: |
| 218 healecas $=$ archiatros | 1234 fill=lima |
| 552 sueor = consobrinus | 1431 staeli $=$ ocearium |
| 656 sules reost $=$ dentalia | 1892 ear $=$ spicas |
| 659 flean=deglobere | 1962 scoere $=$ sutrimato |
| 1033 tolice $=$ huscide | 1991 ðuaelum $=$ taen |

1061 niol=infima
Cf. also 135 meau $=$ alcido, 955 me(a) $u=$ gabea (cf. p. 120); 1878 sur $=$ socer is probably mutilated.

The absolute agreement which exists between all three texts in several glosses (e.g. Ep. 106, 795, 960, 1060) is explicable only on the hypothesis that these forms are faithfully copied from Archetype I. Consequently the loss of $-h$ - must have taken place before the compilation of Archetype I., and the forms in which -h- was preserved must be due to copying from older documents. On the whole it seems probable that the cases of retention and of omission of $-h$ - in Archetype I. were about equal ; for even where $-h$ occurs in only one text it is more probable that it has been lost by the other two texts independently than introduced afresh by one. The treatment of $-h$ - in the three texts gives valuable evidence as to their comparative trustworthiness in representing the forms of Archetype I. Omitting all doubtful cases (including Ep. 610, 1005) we find in Epinal 12 cases of $-h$ - preserved against 9 of $-h$ - lost; in Erfurí preserved 8 , lost 15 ; in Corpus preserved 2, lost 21 . This analysis confirms the conclusion arrived at on p. 111, namely that Epinal is a more faithful copy of Archetype II. than Erfurt; it may now be added that in one respect at least Archetype II. must have been a far more faithful copy of Archetype I. than Corpus.

It is clear that $-h$-must have been partly retained in the documents from which the C. glosses of Corpus are drawn. So far as one can judge from the materials the proportion of cases in which - $h$ - was retained may have been as great as in Archetype I.
xvii. The representation of medial and final Germanic $-f$ - $\dagger$.
A. In 8 glosses all three texts have $-f$-:

$\dagger$ Cases of $-f$ - before voiceless consonants are omitted except where the group has arisen through syncope. All words in which it is doubtful whether $f, b$ represent Germ. $f$ or $b$ are put together on p. 146 f.

Ep. 197 giroefan $=$ cen- Erf. geroefan Cp. 439 geroefan (cf. O.H.G. sores ruoua)

223 giroefa-commenta- geroefa riensis 1022 scof $=$ trulla
1065 gloedscof $=$ uatilla 1046 of $r=$ tuber

| scolf | 2051 scoff |
| :--- | :--- |
| - scofl | 2076 -scoff $\}$ |
| $o(f) r$ | 2074 hofer $\left(: \begin{array}{c}\text { (cf. O.H.G.scūuala, } \\ \text { N.G. houar })\end{array}\right.$ |

In the following glosses Erfurt has mistakes which are no doubt due to the continental scribe :-

Ep. 459 hofr = gibbus Erf. hosr Cp. 969 hofr (see above)
768 fifaldae $=$ papilio $\quad$ uiualdra 1484 fiffalde (O.H.G. fîfaltra)
In one gloss Epinal and Erfurt have $-f$ - (wanting in Corpus):-
Ep. $161 u u f=b u f o \quad$ Erf. $u u f$
B. One gloss has $-f$-:-

Erf. 1134 fifeldae $=$ spalagius (etc.)
C. In 5 glosses Corpus has $-f$-:

230 fraefeli (etc.) $=$ astu (: O.H.G. 997 gref $f=$ graffium (probably from
frauili)
431 fraefeleo $=$ calleo
the same Latin word)
1259 wulf=lupus (cf. 355)
1674 geroefan = proceres (cf. 439 etc.)

On the other hand Corpus has $-b$ - in 6 glosses :-
48 folcgeroebum $=$ actionaris (cf. 1483 scoble $=$ palas (cf. 2051 etc.)
439 etc.) 2011 uиicgeroebum $=$ teloniaris (cf.
439 etc.)
214 ceber $=$ arpia (cf. 326)
1271 obr = margo (cf. Kluge, Wb. ${ }^{5} 2081$ isernscobl=uatilla (cf. 1483) p. 385 b)
xviii. The representation of medial and final Germanic - $\boldsymbol{b}$-.
A. In 28 glosses all three texts have -b- :-

Ep. 7 teblere $=$ aleator Erf. teblere Cp. 111 teblere (: O.H.G. zabal
< Lat. tabla)

30 sceabas $=$ areoli scebas 197 sceabas (: O.H.G. scoub)
124 hraebrebletae = bicoca hebre- 294 haebre- (: N.H.G. habergeiss)
166 clibecti=clibosum
clibecti tebil-

478 clibecti (: O.H.G. klep)
349 tebl- (cf. Ep. 7) (etc.)
178 teblith $=$ cotizat $\quad$ teblith 497 tebleth (cf. Ep. 7)
192 obaer $(s)$ taelendi $=\quad$ ober- $\quad 507$ ober-(:O.H.G.ubar,ubiri)

Ep. 194 obaerstaelid $=$ Erf. ober- Cp. 515 ober- (: O.H.G. ubar,
conuicta 399 bebr = fiber bebr 405 librlaeppan=fibrae libr421 obtt=fraga 468 sceabas = garbas 497 uualh $(h)$ ebuc $=$ horodius
525 gibaen uuaes $=$ in- gebenpendebatur
538 oberuuaenidae $=$ in- ober solesceret
619 earbetlicust $=$ mole stissimum
625 nabae $=$ modioli $\quad$ neba
633 lebil = manile lebil
718 aelbitu=olor (etc.) ebitu
724 scribun = promulga- scribun runt
745 cebisae $=$ pelices caebis
853 sceaba (etc.) =runcina sceaba
854 fitere in ebhatis $=$-ebhatis rabulus
927 eborthrotae $=$ scasa ebor .
942 ansuebidum $=$ sopitis ensuebitum
995 lebil=triplia lebil
1052 eborspreot $=$ uenabula ebor1057 libr $=$ (Erf. uicatum) libr
ubiri $\dagger$ )
867 bebr (: O.H.G. bibar)
873 libr- (: O.H.G. lebara)
919 obet (: O.H.G. obaz)
951 sceabas (cf. Ep. 30)
1016 -habuc (: O.H.G. habuh)
1086 geben- (: Goth. giban)
1099 ober- (cf. Ep. 192, 4)
easbedlicust 1320 earbetlicust (: Goth. arbaibs)
1322 habae (: O.H.G. naba)
1269 lebil (: O.H.G. label)
1439 aelbitu (: O.H.G. albiz)
1628 scribun (: O.H.G. scrīban)
1540 cebise (: O.H.G. kebisa)
1755 sceaba (: O.H.G. scaba)
1705 -eobotum (cf. Goth. ibuks etc.)
1816 ebor- (: O.H.G. ebur)
1882 onsuebdum (: O.H.G. intswebben)
2045 lebl (cf. Ep. 633)
2089 eobor- (cf. Ep. 927)
2119 libr (cf. Ep. 405)

In one gloss Epinal and Erfurt have -b- (wanting in Corpus):-
Ep. 674 naechthraebn $=$ Erf. -hrabn nycticorax
In 8 glosses Erfurt and Corpus have -b- (lost in Epinal):-

Erf. 272 bebir $=$ castorius
293 gabelrend - circinno
303 aebordrotae $=$ colicum
310 unibil=cantarus
319 afyrid obbenda=dromidus
322 dobendi=decrepita
336 gedębin gebil=debita pensio
367 stel $=$ exito (etc.)

Cp. 385 beber (cf. Ep. 399)
469 gabul- (: O.H.G. gabala, gabal)
558 cobur- (cf. Ep. 927)
398 wibil (: O.H.G. wibil)
707 -olbenda (: Goth. ulbandus)
638 dobgendi (: M.H.G. top 648 gedaebeni- (: Goth. gadaban)

785 -staeb (: Goth. stab-im)

[^34]In one gloss Erfurt and Corpus have -b- against Epinal -bf- (no doubt a correction) :

Ep. 1010 nabfogar=terre- Erf. naboger Cp. 2002 nabogaar (cf. Ep. 625) bellus

In 8 glosses Epinal and Erfurt have -b- against Corpus $-f$-:-
Ep. 51 an ba halbae $=$ Erf. -halbe Cp. 121 halfe (: Goth. halba) altrinsecus
136 staeblidrae = ballista steb- 263 staef- (cf. Erf. 367)
577 staebplegan = ludi lit- scaeb- 1245 staef- ( ,, ) terari
635 salb = malagna salb 1272 salf (: O.H.G. salba)
642 uuaelreab $=$ manu- $\quad$-reab 1277 -reaf (: O.H.G. roub) bium
673 naecht $(h)$ raebn $=\quad-h r a e b n \quad 1384$-hraefn (: O.H.G. raban) noctua (etc.)
880 thebanthorn=ramnus theban-
1710 đeofe:-(: O.H.G. depan-
dorn)
931 ha(l)bclungni $=$ semi- halb-
1844 half- (cf. Ep. 51) gelato
probably also :
Ep. 864 gistaebnęndrae $=$ Erf. -staebnen Cp. 1721 -staefnendrae (cf. Erf. reciprocato
so also according to Sweet (O.E.T. p. 516 b.) :
Ep. 630 thebscib=mimo- Erf. thebscip Cp. 1316 か̌eofscip (: Goth biubs etc. paro
but the Latin word is unknown to me).
In 2 glosses Erfurt has $-b$ - against Corpus $-f$ - (lost in Epinal) :-

Erf. 285 hraebn=corax
363 erabedlicae = egre

Cp. 553 hraefn (cf. Ep. 673)
729 earfedlice (cf. Ep. 619)

In one gloss Epinal has $-b$ - against Corpus $-f$ - (wanting in Erfurt) :-
Ep. 656 geormantlab (ete.)=malua Cp. 1288 gearvan leaf (: Goth. laubos, N. pl.)

In one gloss Epinal has -b- against Erfurt -p-, Corpus -f-:
Ep. 1089 gilebdae = ueri- Erf. gilepdae Cp. 2080 gilefde (:Goth. uslaubjan) cundiae concesserim

In one gloss Epinal and Corpus have $-b$ - against Erfurt $-f$-:
Ep. 6 teblae $=$ alea Erf. tefil Cp. 110 tebl
In 3 glosses Erfurt and Corpus have $-f$ - against Epinal -b- :-
Ep. 52 faerscribaen $=$ Erf. -scrifen Cp. 69 -scrifen (cf. Ep. 724) addictus
848 hraebnes foot = quin- hrafnas - 1697 hraefnes- (cf. Ep. 673) quefolium
1047 sinuurbul $=$ teres sinuulfur 2008 siunhuurful (: O.H.G. sinhwerbal) †
so also in all probability :-
Ep. 915 anhaebd=suspensus, Erf. anhæbd, Cp. 1947, ahaefd (: hebban related to Goth. hafjan etc. Two originally distinct (but related) verbs seem to have been confused in English).

In 2 glosses Epinal and Erfurt have $-f$ - against Corpus -b-:

Ep. 536 unofaercumen- Erf. unofer- Cp. 1097 unober- (cf. Ep. 192) $(r a e)=$ indigestae
762 sifunsterri $=$ pliadas fun- 1599 sibun- (: Goth. sibun)
In one probable case all three texts have $-f$-:
Ep. 75 staefnęndra $=$ Erf. staefnen - Cp. 126 staefnendra (cf. Ep. 864) alternantium dra

In 2 glosses Erfurt and Corpus have $-f$ - (lost in Epinal):-

Erf. 300 uuefl=caldica 392 ifeg = edera

Cp. 482 wef (cf. O.H.G. weban)
718 ifegn (: O.H.G. ebahewi, ebawi, ebah)

In one gloss Epinal has $-f$ - (wanting in Erfurt and Corpus):--

Ep. 1084 hraefnaes fot=quinquefolium (Cf. Ep. 848)
In one probable case Epinal and Erfurt have $-f$ - against Corpus -u-:-
Ep. 653 clofae $=$ morda- Erf. clofee Cp. 1327 clouae (cf. M.H.G. klobe) cius
$\dagger-b$ - over $-f$ - in Epinal, cf. Sweet's note ad loc.

In one probable case Epinal and Erfurt have -u- against Corpus $-f$-:
Ep. 428 siuida = furfures, Erf. siuida, Cp. 940 sifiðan (probably connected with O.H.G. sib, cf. Cp. 597, below).
B. Erfurt has -b- in two glosses :-

1136 lebuend $i=$ adfectuosus (etc.) 1141 tebleri (etc.)=aleator (cf. Ep. 7) (: Goth. liub-)
Erfurt has also two examples of $-f_{-}$:-
1142 tefil =alia (cf. Ep. 7) 1155 cucaelf=baccula (:O.H.G. kalb)
C. In 27 glosses Corpus has -b- :-

30 aelbitu $=$ tantalus (cf. Ep. 718) $\quad 1210$ afroebirdun $=$ lenirent $\quad$ (cf.

98 ebnwege $=$ aequipensum (: Goth. ilns)
179 eobor $=$ aper (cf. Ep. 927)
193 lebel = aquemale (cf. Ep. 633)
303 herbid=bipertitum (cf. Ep. 51)
399 heber = caper (cf. Ep. 124)
452 tyrb $=$ cespites (: O.H.G. zurba)
597 sibi $=$ crebrum (: O.H.G. sib)
631 obgibeht $=$ destituit (: Goth. giban)
658 scriben $=$ decerni (cf. Ep. 724)
740 gesuirbet $=$ elimat (: O.H.G. swerban)
764 huerbende $=$ errabiles (: O.H.G. hwarbian)
1180 hebenhus = lacunar (: Goth. himins)
O.H.G. Auobara)

1397 -earbeðe $=$-negotio (cf. Ep. 619)
1413 -lybsn=obligamentum (: Goth. lubja-)
1441 stacb $=$ olastrum (: Goth. stab$i m)$
1457 -heldiobul=orcus (: Lat. diabolus)
1464 ebur'ring = orion (cf. Ep. 927)
1622 unlab $=$ posthumus (cf. Goth. laiba)
1498 wibl=panpila (cf. Erf. 310)
1694 geeblicadun = quadrare (cf. 98) 1712 gabulrond=radio (cf. Erf. 293) 1778 haeb $=$ salum (: M.H.G. hap) 1930 lybesne $=$ strenas (cf. 1413) 2164 stebn $=$ uox (: Goth. stibna) 2176 loob=ymnus (: O.H.G. lob)
probably also in 2108 huerb $=$ uertil (cf. O.H.G. hwarblih, cf. p. 122) ; and perhaps in 216 sibaed = arbatae (cf. Ep. 428), cf. also 376 caebestr = capistrum (probably from the same word).

In 19 glosses Corpus has $-f-:-$
27 eoforbrote = scisca (cf. Ep. 927)
92 efnum = aequatis (cf. 98)
173 ald uuif=anus (: O.H.G. wip $)$
281 stofa $=$ balneum (cf. O.H.G. stuba)
299 seolfbonan = biothanatas(:Goth. silba)

```
474 oefsung = circinatio (cf. Goth.
                ubizwa)
482 owef (etc.)=cladica (cf. O.H.G.
        weban)
489 half=clima (cf. Ep. 51)
699 ofgefen=distitutum (cf. 631)
1147 hindcaelf=inulus(cf. Erf. 1155)
```

1260 wylf $=$ lupa (: O.H.G. wulpa)
1499 uuef = panuculum (cf. Erf. 300)
1558 clifhlep $=$ pessum (cf. Ep. 166)
1583 cofa $=$ pistrimum (: M.H.G. kobe) 1587 cofincel=pistrilla ( , )

1644 ascufi $\delta=$ praecipitat (cf. Goth. -skiuban)
2016 uuefl = titica (cf. Erf. 300)
2144 caelf = uitulus (cf. Erf. 1155)
2145 cucaelf = uitula ( , )
Cf. also 430 caefi $=$ capistro (probably <Lat. capulum).
Note. Forms in which the etymological value of $b, f$ is uncertain.
A. In 3 glosses all three texts have $-f$-:

Ep. 517 riscthyfil=iunge- Erf. -thyfil Cp. 1159 -ðyfel tum
647 scalfr $=$ mergulus $\quad$ scalfr $\quad 1304$ scalfur
996 hrofuuy $(r)$ cta=tig- hrof- 2020 hrof- (: O.N. hrof $)$ narius

In one gloss Epinal and Erfurt have $-f$ - (wanting in Corpus) :-
Ep. 609 hrof=lacuna Erf. hrof (cf. Ep. 996)
In one gloss Epinal has $-f$ - (wanting in Erfurt and Corpus):-
Ep. 662 scalfr $=$ mergus (cf. 647)
In one gloss Epinal and Corpus have $-f$ - against Erfurt -b- :-
Ep. $\quad 58$ scaldthyfas =alga, Erf. $-(t)$ hyblus, Cp. 128 -hyfus
In one gloss Erfurt has $-f$ - against Corpus -b- (Epinal -p-) :-
Ep. 613 clibae=lappa Erf. clifae Cp. 1184 clibe
In one gloss Erfurt has $-f$ - against Corpus $-b$ - (lost in Epinal):-
Erf. 258 hafaern $=$ cancer Cp. 379 haebrn
In 2 glosses Erfurt has -b- against Corpus $-f$ - : -
Erf. 250 rede clabre $=$ calta Cp. 375 clafre (cf. Nthl. klaver)
254 huitti clabre $=$ calesta

$$
377 \text { clafre }(\quad, \quad)
$$

In one gloss Epinal and Corpus have -b- against Erfurt $-f$-:
Ep. 684 habern $=$ nepa Erf. hafern Cp. 1370 haebern

In 4 glosses Epinal and Erfurt have -b- against Corpus $-f$-:
Ep. 179 hualb = con- Erf. halb Cp. 498 hualf (: O.N. hualf,
uexum
627 scybla $=$ mafortae scybla
$631 \mathrm{gloob}=$ manica
832 scabfoot=pansa
$g l o b$
scaab-
O.H.G. welben)

1267 scufla (: O.N. skupla, skypill?)
1268 glof
1513 scaf- (: O.N. skeifr)

In 5 glosses all three texts have $-b$-:-
Ep. 115 gaebuli=aere Erf. gaebuli Cp. 96 geabuli (: Goth. giban?) alieno
602 hebild =liciatorium hebild 1232 hebeld (: M.L.G. hevelte)
757 borch obst = per anti- -obust 1546 obst (: O. Sax. öbast) cipationem
864 lerb $=$ scirpea (etc.) lebrae 1804 lebr
1058 cebertuun $=$ uestibu $-\quad$ caeber $-\quad 2094$ caebr lum

In two glosses Erfurt and Corpus have -b- (lost in Epinal) :-

Erf. 336 gedębin gebil $=$ debita pensio
394 gebles monung $=$ exactio

Cp. 648 -geabuli (cf. Ep. 115)

813 geabules- (, )
B. Erfurt has one example of $-f$-:-

1106 nefern $=$ cancer (cf. 258)
C. Corpus has $-f$ - in 3 glosses :-

133 hyfi=aluearia (: M.L.G. huue, cf. Zupitza, Gutt. p. 128)
1956 sue ( $f$ ) l sueart = sulforia (: Goth. swibls, O.H.G. swebal, sweual)
2013 hrof=tholus (cf. Ep. 996)
$-b$ - occurs in 10 glosses ;-
645 seobgendum (etc.)=querelis (etc.) (cf. M.H.G. siufzen, siuften, Kluge, $\mathrm{Wb}^{5}$. p. 347 b.)
803 asuab = exorbitans (: O.N. suífa, cf. O.H.G. swelēn, sweibōn)
881 gebellicum wa(g)nfearu=fiscalis reda (cf. Ep. 115)
1219 hebelgerd $=$ liciatorium (cf. Ep. 1818 uuebung $=$ scena $\quad$ (: O.H.G. 602)

1233 hebeldðred=licia (cf. Ep. 602) 1823 leber (etc.)=scirpea (cf. Ep. 894)
1311 scraeb $=$ merga (: O.N. skarfr?) 1879 slebescoh (etc.) $=$ soccus
1317 hlibendri=minaci

The results of this analysis may be briefly summed up as follows:

1. The representation of Germ. $\hbar$ in A gives valuable evidence in regard to the comparative trustworthiness of the three texts in reproducing the forms of Archetype I. Omitting (Ep.) $75,428,630,653,864-$ on which some doubt may reasonably be felt-the statistics for the three texts are as follows: Epinal has $44 b$ against $3 f$ (omitting 1010), Erfurt $49 b$ against $8 f$, Corpus $40 b$ against $18 f$. This result confirms the conclusions arrived at on p. 140, namely that Epinal is a more faithful copy of Archetype II. than Erfurt, and that Archetype II. was a very much more faithful copy of Archetype I. than Corpus.
2. There is no evidence that $-b$ - was used for Germ. $f$ in Archetype I. It is likewise highly improbable that $-f$ was used for Germ. $\begin{gathered} \\ \text { in more than three or four glosses at }\end{gathered}$ the most. Indeed there is not one absolutely certain example. This being so there is every probability that those words in the "uncertain" lists which appear in all three texts with $-f$ - or $-b$-, contain Germ. $f$ and Germ. $b$ respectively.
3. In the C glosses Corpus has $6 b$ against $5-f$ - for Germ. $-f$-; $19-f$ - against $27-b$ - (omitting doubtful cases) for Germ. $b$. Since the proportion in the latter case is greater than in the A glosses and since these also contain no examples of $-b$ - for Germ. $f$, it is probable that the confusion of Germ. $b$ and $f$ in C is partly inherited from older documents. It is noteworthy also that all the examples of $-b$ - for Germ. $f$ occur in the medial position, while of the examples of $-f$ - for Germ. $t$ 9 occur in the final position against $5-b$ - (including the first members of compounds), while 10 occur in the medial position against $22-b$-. This is still more marked in the A glossés: of the 40 occurrences of $-b$ - for Germ. $\overline{6}, 39$ are in the medial position, only one in the final; of the 18 occurrences of $-f$ 12 are in the medial position, 6 in the final. These statistics seem rather to point to a change of (voiced) $\hbar$ to (voiceless) $f$ in the final position beside the change of (voiceless) $f$ to (voiced) $t$ in the medial.
xix. The orthography of the Glossaries.

For the purpose of determining the age of the three texts and if possible the locality to which the scribes belonged, it is worth while to investigate a few of the points in which the early texts show orthographical differences. Only those glosses which occur in Epinal need be dealt with. In the majority of cases it will be enough to give merely the references.

1. The representation of the sound-group - $\chi t$-.

Epinal has altogether 23 examples of -ct- (including 1093 where -0 - is obviously a mistake for $-c-$ ), 5 examples of -cht-, and one doubtful example of $-h t-$ ( 936 . cf. Sweet, ad loc.). To these correspond in Erfurt (omitting obvious mistakes) 15 examples of -ct-, 6 of -cht- and 3 -ht-; while Corpus has 10 -ct-, 3 -cht-, 13 -ht-. The distribution of these is as follows:-

All three texts have -ct- in 6 glosses :-85, 166, 204, 247, 868,999 . To these may be added 857 and 866 , where Erfurt has -c- and - $t$ - respectively.

Epinal and Erfurt have -ct- against Corpus -cht- in one gloss: 513. so also in 928 where Erfurt has -t-.

Epinal and Erfurt have -ct- against Corpus -ht- in 5 glosses :-10, 516, 579, 723, 1093.

Epinal and Corpus have -ct- against Erfurt -cht- in 2 glosses:-509, 544.

Epinal has -ct- against Erf. -cht-, Cp. -lt- in one gloss:836.

Epinal has -ct- against Erf. -cht- in one gloss (wanting in Corpus) : 524. (cf. also 673.); and in one gloss against Erf. -th-: 674.

In 2 glosses Epinal has -ct- against Erf., Cp. -ht-:-155, 996.

In one gloss all three texts have -cht-: 187 .
In 2 glosses Epinal has -cht- against Erf. -ct-, Cp. -ht-:533, 673.

In one gloss Epinal and Erfurt have -cht- against Corpus -ht-: 756.

In one gloss Epinal has -cht- against Erf., Cp. -ht- : 574.
Corresponding to Ep. -ht- in 936 (wanting in Erfurt) Corpus has -ht-.
-ct- was without doubt the usual representation of this sound-group in Archetype I. -cht- may also have been used, but -ht-must be regarded as doubtful. The latter was evidently the representation familiar to the scribe of Corpus.
2. The representation of $-g g^{-},-{ }^{\circ} g g^{g}-$.

Epinal has -gg-consistently-six examples in all. Corresponding to these Erfurt has $3-c g-, 2-g$-, and one $-c-$; Corpus has $2-g g-, 2-c g$-, and one $-e g$ - (probably a mistake for -cg-). The occurrences are as follows:-

In 2 glosses Epinal and Corpus have -gg- against Erfurt -cg-: -

| Ep. 422 sugga | Erf. sucga | Cp. 878 sugga |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 916 mygg | mycg | 1814 mygg |

In one gloss Erfurt and Corpus have -cg- against Epinal $-g g-:-$
Ep. 463 segg
Erf. secg
Cp. 977 saecg

In one gloss Epinal has -gg-, Erfurt -c-, Corpus -cg-:Ep. 44 earunigga Erf. aeruuica Cp. 240 earwicga

In one gloss Epinal has -gg-, Erfurt -g-, Corpus -eg-:Ep. 966 segg Erf. seg Cp. 1786 seeg

In one gloss Epinal has -gg- against Erfurt $-g$-: Ep. 781 ilugsegg

Erf. ilugseg (cf. Cp. 1487)
The two occurrences of -gg-in Corpus prevent us from supposing that this is a peculiarity due to the scribe of Epinal. It is more likely also that $-c g$ - should have been substituted for $-g g$ - than vice versa, for $-c g-(-g c-)$ is practically universal in other texts. It is probable therefore that in this respect also Epinal has preserved a feature of Archetype I.
3. The representation of $-w$-.

In Epinal this sound is most frequently represented by $-u u$ - though $-u$ - is also used, especially after consonants. In

Erfurt $-u$ - is much more frequent than in Epinal. The Runic letter $w$ (wyn), which is exceedingly frequent in Corpus, occurs only nine times in Epinal. Of the corresponding cases in Corpus 5 have -w-, 4 -uu-: The representation in Erfurt is as follows:-

Erfurt has -u- against Epinal and Corpus -w- in 2 glosses :-118, 162.

Erfurt has -uu- against Epinal and Corpus -w- in 2 glosses :—118, 1014.

Erfurt has -p-against Epinal and Corpus $-w$ - in one gloss :-173.

Erfurt together with Corpus has -uu- against Epinal -win 2 glosses:-1059, 1071.

Erfurt has -b- against Epinal -w-, Corpus -uu- in one gloss :-1059.

Erfurt has $-u$ - against Epinal -w-, Corpus -uu- in one gloss :-1068.

Erfurt has another example of $p$ - in 388 (Cp. 736. w-, lost in Epinal). The extraordinarily small number of mistakes in Erfurt seems to point to the absence of - $w$ - in Archetype iI. Yet it is possible that the English original of Erfurt substituted $-u$-, $-u u$-, for (Runic) $-w$-, and this explanation is favoured by two significant facts: in Ep. 769 sperpi (Erf. spreui, Cp. 1581 smeoruue) the text from which Epinal is copied would seem to have had $-w-\dagger$; but there is no reason to suppose that Epinal is not a direct copy from Archetype II. Another case of the same kind is Ep. 444 poot against Erf. puoo(d). Again in 564 Erfurt has the following gloss: lepor, subtilitas uel p'uod (Ep. unop, Cp. 1196 woor); the simplest explanation of this is to suppose that the scribe of Erfurt's original first copied $w$ - and then wrote $-u$-, perhaps partly erasing the former (cf. also 444 above). The appearance of $u u$ - in the corresponding gloss of Epinal suggests that this substitution may have taken place elsewhere also. It is at least remarkable that Epinal has no examples of $-w$ - between

[^35]173 and 1014. I am inclined therefore to believe that $-w$ was used in Archetype II. and that in some cases (e.g. probably $178,388,564$ ) it may have been copied from Archetype I.
4. The use of the Runic letter $\}$ :

This letter is more frequent than (Runic) $w$, though the sound is far more often represented by -th- etc. Altogether (omitting 444 and 769 where it is used for $w-$ ) -poccurs 19 times. In one gloss (613) it seems to have been substituted for $-b$ - or $-f$-. The remaining cases together with the corresponding letters in Erfurt and Corpus are as follows:-

In 10 glosses (11 cases) Epinal has -p-, Erfurt -d-, Corpus -ס-:-118, 162, 564, 741, 753, 760, 763, 846, 1037 (twice), 1093.

In one gloss Epinal has - $\overline{-}$ - against Erfurt and Corpus $-\varnothing$-: 542.

In one gloss Epinal has -p-, Erfurt, - $d$ - Corpus -t-: 628.
In two glosses Epinal and Corpus have -p- against Erfurt - $d$-: 738, 845.

In one gloss Epinal and Corpus have p- while Erfurt simply omits a letter : 532 (Erf. ingungae).

The remaining two cases are in 601 : Ep. pupistil, Erf. popistil, Cp. 1179 puðistel.

The small number of cases in which Corpus has -p-corresponding to Epinal -p- makes it doubtful whether this letter was used in Archetype 1., for elsewhere - $p$ - is not rare in Corpus. It is probable that Archetype II. had -j- at least in 532 and 601 . The frequent - $d$ - of Erfurt is perhaps a substitution for $\delta$ due to the continental scribe.
5. The use of the letter - $\delta$-.

This letter occurs altogether 8 times in Epinal. In 2 cases $(754,838)$ we find $-d$ - in the corresponding glosses of Erfurt and Corpus, but there may have been a sound-change. In one gloss (796) Erfurt has -d-, Corpus - - - ; in another case in the same gloss Erfurt has - $\delta$-, Corpus -th-. In one gloss (1039) Erfurt has $-t$-, Corpus $\delta$-, In 2 other glosses
$(661,709)$ Epinal and Corpus have $-\gamma$ - ; of these the first is wanting in Erfurt, while the second has a mutilated form. Lastly in 707. Epinal has $\gamma$ - against Corpus p-, while in Erfurt the letter is omitted (the Epinal form also being mutilated). There are (besides 796) three occurrences of -ठ- in Erfurt : 456 against Epinal th-, Corpus $\delta$ - ; 583 against Epinal th- ; 997 against Epinal -d-. The last two forms do not occur in Corpus.

Since - $\varnothing$ - is exceedingly frequent in Corpus, the fact that Epinal and Corpus agree in - $\varnothing$ - in four glosses can prove nothing for Archetype I. It has already been suggested (p. 152) that where Erfurt has -d- its English original may often have had - $\varnothing$-. The rarity of - $\varnothing$ - in Epinal however makes it probable that these cases were substitutions (for -th-, -p-, etc.) made in that text rather than copied from Archetype II. Erfurt has - $d-$-, - $\delta$ - beside Epinal - $\delta$ - in only four cases, and all of these are in words which are usually written with $-d$-, three of them representing sounds which underwent a change from $p>d$. It is likely therefore that in Epinal they denote a voiced spirant.

## xx. The comparative faithfulness of the three texts.

In order to arrive at a safe conclusion on this question it is necessary to take into consideration only those points of language or orthography which certainly involve the preservation of archaisms and which can not be attributed to dialectic or local peculiarities. Among these six (three linguistic and three orthographical) may be mentioned:-

1. The preservation of interior $-h$-.
2. The preservation of the distinction between Germ. $f$ and Germ. $\boldsymbol{b}$.
3. The preservation of the distinction between $c e$ and $i$ in unaccented syllables.
4. The representation of the sound-group - $\chi t$-.
5. The representation of $-g g$ - (and $-\dot{g} g g^{-}$).
6. The representation of the sounds $w$ and $p$.

In regard to 1, 2, 4, 5 it has already been shown ( pp .140 , 148 ff .) that Epinal is more archaic than Erfurt and that Archetype II. (as inferred generally from the agreement of Epinal and Erfurt) must have been much more archaic than Corpus. In regard to 6 also Corpus shows a less archaic orthngraphy than the other two texts. In regard to 3 it may be mentioned that in inflexional syllables -e-(for $c, i$ ) is much more frequent in Corpus than in either of the other texts; again in the prefix gi-, ge- Epinal has according to Dieter (§29) 40 gi - against 14 ge -, while Corpus has only one example of gi- against over $1 \check{5} 0 \mathrm{ge}$-.

Where differences of dialect are involved, Corpus may sometimes preserve the forms of Archetype I. better than the other texts. There is some reason for believing that such is the case with regard to palatal umlaut (cf. p. 133). On the other hand in cases where all materials for applying a test are wanting, as e.g. in the representation of $Q$ and $e^{5}$ (cf. pp. 111, 114), I am inclined to place greater reliance on the evidence of Epinal and Erfurt, especially the former, than on Corpus, in consequence of the greater conservatism displayed in general by those texts.

## xxi. The age of the Texts.

1. The date at which the compilation of Archetype I. took place may be conjectured with reasonable probability from its treatment of (intersonantal) Germ. $\chi, f, t$, as also from certain peculiarities in its orthography. Since intervocalic $-h$ - (as also $-h$ - before $-l$ - etc.) was undoubtedly lost (cf. p. 140), the compilation can scarcely have been made earlier than about $670-680$. This is further confirmed by the fact that $\bar{e}^{1}, \bar{e}^{3}$ seem to have been usually expressed by $-e$-. Of course it is possible that the change of $\bar{e}^{1}, \bar{e}^{3}>\bar{e}$ took place earlier in some dialects than in Northumbrian (cf. p. 23 ff ); yet isolated examples of -ae- survive in the earliest Kentish, East-Saxon and Mercian texts (cf. Chart. $1,4,13$ ). On the other hand the latest possible date may
be approximately fixed by the treatment of Germ. $-f-,-\delta-$. It has been shown (p. 148), that the confusion of these sounds was practically unknown in Archetype I. Now in the Moore MS. of Bede (737) Germ. $\begin{aligned} & \\ & \text { is in the majority of cases repre- }\end{aligned}$ sented by $-f$-: thus aelf- III. 1, 24, Iv. 21, v. 24, against aelb- iv. 26 ; gef- iv. Praef. against geb- iv. 12, v. 8 ; suefiv. 11 against suceb- v. 8 ; so also gefrin iI. 14, eafa imi. 24 ; on the other hand cnob- III. 19. In all these cases C agrees with $M$ except in II. 14, IV. 26, iv. Praef., where it has gebrin elf-, gem- respectively. On the other hand B and $N$ have -b- against the $-f$ - of M and C in III. 24, IV. 21, aelb-, IV. Praef. geb-; B also has eaba (III. 24) against M eafa (cf. also Sweet's note to II. 14). It would seem therefore that Bede himself did not write $-f$ - so frequently as $M$ and $C$ appear to indicate. Yet there can be no reasonable doubt that the confusion of $-\delta$ - and $-f$ - had begun during his lifetime. Another example of $-f$ - for $t$ which belongs in all probability to a still earlier date is Clerm. wylif (cf. p. 24). But there is no reason to suppose that the confusion of $b$ and $f$ took place earlier in Northumbrian than in the Southern dialects. For the latter we have during this early period nothing but a few charters, so that the material is very limited ; yet in the Mercian-Kentish Chart. 17 (A.D. 742) we find ecglaf (cf. angenlabes in Chart. 1), while ofa in the same Charter is obviously the same name as oba in Chart. 9 (A.D. 736). Chart. 2 (assigned by Sweet to 693-731) has aelf, but unfortunately the reading seems to be uncertain. Chart. 13 (770) has celffced; after 800 examples are plentiful. Limited as it is, the evidence is enough to show that by about $730-740$ Germ. $t$ and $f$ were already confused in all dialects. 720 is therefore the latest probable date for a composition in which these sounds were still kept distinct. This conclusion is fully in harmony with the orthographical evidence. In Chart. 5 (700-715), 6 (732), 7 (740), 9 (736), 17 (742) - $\chi t$ - is consistently represented by $-h t-(-h t t-)$ and so also usually in all subsequent charters ; -ct- occurs only in Chart. 1 (692, 3), 2 (693-731), 4 (679). It is true that the Moore MS. of Bede writes -ct-
consistently, but the Northern orthography is generally conservative ; in Liber Vitae also -ct- is by far the most frequent form, while the Runic letters $w$ and p are altogether unknown in the early Northern texts. Again, with one or two isolated exceptions (e.g. wigga Chart. 12, uuigga 49 against uuicggan 19, wicga 47, 48) -gg- is unknown to me outside the glossaries ; Chart. 1 has -gc-, Chart. $17-c g-,-g c g-$, while all the MSS. of Bede write -cg-. The use of (Runic) $w$ in Archetype I. is no argument against the assumption of so early a date, as it occurs in Chart. 1. - $\delta$ - appears first in Chart. 5, and is frequent in Chart. 17, but there does not appear to me to be sufficient evidence that this letter occurred in Archetype I. The absence of $p$ in the early charters is of course inconclusive. On the whole there appears every probability that Archetype I. was compiled between 680-720.
2. Archetype iI. seems to have had $-f$ - for Germ. $b$, though only in a very few glosses. Otherwise its dating depends on the date assigned to Epinal.
3. Most of the arguments used above for fixing the date of Archetype I., especially those drawn from the orthography, apply also to the case of Epinal. The use of $-c t-,-g g-$ - the absence of -ht-, the rarity of $-\delta$ - and of the confusion of Germ. $t$ and $f$, together with the generally archaic character both of the language and of the orthography, make it probable that the interval between Archetype I.-Archetype II.Epinal was comparatively short. The latest probable date for Epinal seems to me to be about 730 .
4. In determining the date of the English original of Erfurt the following points have to be taken into account: the confusion of Germ. $b$ and $f$ was more frequent than in Epinal (cf. p. 148), $-c g$ - was substituted for $-g g$-, - - - was probably used more frequently (cf. p. 152 f.), and -ht- was substituted, though only rarely, for -ct- (-cht- being also used as in Epinal) ; the general character however both of the language and of the orthography is archaic; the comparatively frequent retention of eu- may especially be mentioned (cf. p. 124 n .). There are marked differences of language which
compel us to believe that the scribe spoke a different dialect from that of Epinal, but none of these are proofs of lateness. So far as I can see Erfurt contains nothing which would make it likely that its original was written much after 750 .
5. The date of Corpus is very difficult to estimate from the language and orthography of the English forms alone. Many of these, as in the other texts, obviously belong to the seventh century, but the majority have undergone more modernisation than those of either Epinal or Erfurt. The orthography (e.g. the very frequent use of $-\gamma$ - and $-h t$-) does not necessarily point to a period later than 750 ; but from the language, especially the changes in unaccented syllables, I should be inclined to favour a date nearer the end of the century. This text, like Erfurt, contains marked dialectical divergences from Archetype I., and in order to estimate its date accurately one would require to have texts written in the same dialect. In the absence of these it seems to me that the text might be attributed to the ninth century with just as much probability as to the latter part of the eighth, judging from the English glosses alone $\dagger$.

## xxii. The Dialects.

This question, as has already been shown, is somewhat complicated. Four dialects have to be distinguished in the A glosses: I. the dialect of Archetype I.; II. the dialect of Epinal; iII. the dialect of Erfurt; iv. the dialect of Corpus. There is but little evidence (and that of a doubtful character) for dialectic differences within Archetype I. The dialect of Archetype II. again does not seem to have differed from that of Epinal, though the latter seems to have carried the process of assimilation somewhat further. Lastly, there seem to have been dialectical differences in the sources of the C glosses of Corpus.

[^36]I. The following is a short summary of the dialectical characteristics of Archetype I. :-

1. The change $e^{1}>e$ was known, though -ae- was usually written (cf. p. 103).
2. The change $\bar{e}^{1}>\bar{e}$ was more complete; the writing -ae- was exceptional (cf. p. 117 f.).
3. $a$ was preserved before $l+$ consonant.
4. $a^{2}$ seems to have been preserved (cf. p. 107 f.).
5. $\vec{a}^{2}$ was preserved (cf. p. 120).
6. \& was probably expressed by $-a$ - (cf. p. 111), which must denote that the labialism was very slight.
7. $e^{5}$ was probably expressed by -ae- (cf. p. 114).
8. The $\check{e} a$ - diphthongs seem to have become $\check{e} a$; -eawas written consistently.
9. The change $\omega^{3}$ ( $i$-umlaut of $(e a)>e$ was known (cf. p. 122 ff.).
10. The change $\bar{e}^{3}(i$-umlaut of $\bar{e} a)>\bar{e}$ was complete (cf. p. 121).
11. The confusion of the $\check{e} 0-$ and $\check{\imath} u$ - ( $\check{\imath} 0-)$ diphthongs was known, though not frequent (cf. p. 126).
12. Palatal umlaut seems to have been regular, though a few forms representing diphthongs were probably preserved from older texts. It is to be observed: i. that $\check{\bar{e}}, \check{\imath}(<\breve{\bar{e}} 0, \check{\imath} u)$ remained distinct-i.e. that palatal umlaut preceded the confusion of the diphthongs $\check{e} o$ and $\breve{\bar{u} u}$; ii. that the changes $\omega^{4}\left(<(e a)>e\right.$, and perhaps $\bar{e}^{4}(<\bar{e} a)>\bar{e}$ seem to have been known, though in both cases -ae- was usually written (cf. p. 133).
13. Palatal diphthongisation took place only before back vowels (cf. p. 136).
14. There seems to have been scarcely any trace of labial or back umlaut (cf. p. 136).

It is clear that this dialect can have been neither Northumbrian nor West-Saxon. From Northumbrian it differs in $1,7,9,11,12 \mathrm{ii}$; from West-Saxon in $1,2,3,12$ and perhaps 7 , while the sounds $e^{2}$ (before $l+$ consonant), $\kappa^{3}$ and $\bar{\omega}^{3}$ probably never existed in West-Saxon. Again, we
are prevented by 9,12 ii. and 14 (probably also 6,7 ) from identifying this dialect with that of the Psalter. The change in 1 also was probably later here than in the latter dialect (cf. p. 88 f.). The identification of this dialect with Kentish is on exterior grounds more probable than any of the preceding. With Kentish also it shares the cbanges in 1, 2, 9, 10,11 , while in regard to $3,6,12,14$ it does not differ from the language of the earliest Kentish charters. On the other hand there is an important difference between this dialect and Kentish in regard to 4, 5-a difference which can hardly be attributed to the greater antiquity of Archetype I. (cf. under iII. below). Again, in regard to 8 this dialect was decidedly less archaic than early Kentish, while in 7 the only early Kentish example of $\omega^{5}$ has $-e$ - (tenid, Chart. 4). The identification therefore can not be considered satisfactory. On the other hand there is a most remarkable resemblance between this dialect and that of Chart. 1. Although the latter contains only 28 English words, these give evidence of agreement with Archetype I. in 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, while it does not contain a single form which is at variance with any of the fourteen characteristics enumerated above. A resemblance in so many striking particulars can hardly be accidental. I conclude therefore that the dialect of Archetype I. was East-Saxon.

The same (or a very nearly related) dialect is represented in a somewhat later form by the English words in Bede C. The agreement is especially noticeable in the representation of $e^{5}$ by -ae- (cf. p. 60). In orthography also the resemblance is noticeable, especially in the use of -cht-, -uu-, $-w-, q u-$; though of course C has more modern characteristics. A still later form of the same dialect is probably shown by the glosses in the same text; the back-umlaut, which appears here (as occasionally also in the text), is clearly of late date, since it is not hindered by an intervening guttural. Among points of detail it may be mentioned that these glosses agree with Archetype I. (as also with the Psalter) in the form ðorh against Kent. (Chart. 42), W. Sax. סurh, North. Əerh; and again in the form mir against Ps., Kent., W.-Sax. mid ; mir
(etc.) however occurs also in a Mercian charter (48) and also in a West-Saxon-Kentish charter (24).
II. The only important dialectical difference, which I have been able to detect between Archetype I. and Epinal, is in regard to palatal umlaut. The dialect of the latter seems to have used diphthongal forms. This makes it probable that its geographical position lay further west, nearer to the West-Saxon border $\dagger$. In this conuection it is perhaps worth noticing that the name haehferð, which occurs in (the apparently Mercian) Chart. 49, appears as heahfer厄 in Chart. 51, 59 (cf. also aeðelheah in Chart. 51) both of which belong to Middlesex.
III. On the dialect of the English original of Erfurt there can not be the slightest doubt. The change $\breve{e}^{2}>\breve{e}$, of which Erfurt offers numerous examples, is a distinctive characteristic of the Kentish dialect. The change $\infty^{2}>e$ appears already in Chart. 4 (679) uelhisci, while the change $\bar{e}^{2}>\bar{e}$, though not evidenced in the early charters (examples of ${\overline{e^{2}}}^{2}$ being there extremely rare, cf. p. 94 f .), can scarcely have taken place later than the first half of cent. viir.; examples certainly occurred in the documents from which the C glosses of Corpus are drawn. Further the change of $\omega^{1}, c^{5}>e$, the preservation of $a$ before $l+$ consonant and the frequency of palatal umlaut are all in conformity with the language of the earliest Kentish charters, though (in regard to the two last points) reasons have been given (p. 90 f.) for doubting whether this dialect was in reality pure Kentish.
IV. The dialect of Corpus agreed with that of Archetype I. in many important particulars, viz. in $2,3,4,5,8,10$, 11, 12 i . and perhaps 13 , while in regard to 9 the true forms of the Corpus dialect are doubtful $\ddagger$. On the other hand it certainly differed from Archetype 1. in 1, 6, 7, 14, while in regard to 12 ii . there was probably no change of $\breve{e}^{4}>\check{e}^{\prime},-a e-$ being the regular form both for the short and for the long

[^37]sound (cf. p. 133). It differed from Northumbrian in 11, 12 ii.; from early Kentish in 1, 4,5 ; from the dialect of the Psalter in 1, 12 ii. and partly in 14, while it had no resemblance to West Saxon. The texts which resemble this dialect most are certain Mercian charters, especially 47, 49 (cf. aclaeh, haehfers in the latter). In all probability therefore it was a Midland dialect, perhaps Mercian, though not from the south-western parts of the Mercian area.

Among the sources of the C. glosses were some Kentish texts which knew the change $\bar{w}^{2}>\bar{e}$ (cf. p. 120). Possibly also some glosses were drawn from West Saxon sources (e.g. forsliet, p. 124, alieset, p. 121). In these texts palatal umlaut could not have been universal (cf. p. 133 f.).

## 15. Chronology of the Earlier Dialectical Variations.

I. Reasons have been given (p. 23) for believing that in the Northumbrian dialect the relative chronology of the more important sound-changes was as follows: 1. Contraction through the loss of intervocalic $-\chi$ - was preceded by the change $\bar{e}\left(=\bar{e}^{1}, \bar{e}^{3}, \bar{e}^{4}\right)>\bar{e} . \quad$ 2. The latter change was preceded by palatal umlaut and by the lengthening of vowels before $r+$ consonant (cf. p. 5 ff.). It has further been shown (p. 25) that the contraction took place in all probability between 680-710, the change $\bar{e}>\bar{e}$ between 650-680, and the operation of palatal umlaut consequently before 650 .
II. The relative chronology of the sound-changes in the dialect of the Psalter appears to have been identical, except in one or two details, with that in Northumbrian (cf. p. 25); the absolute chronology therefore can scarcely have differed appreciably. There were however two important points of difference between the two dialects: i. the operation of labial umlaut ; ii. the change $\omega^{1}>e$ (both in the dialect of the Psalter). The former of these certainly preceded palatal umlaut (cf. p. 88), while the latter change must have taken
place before $c^{1}$ fell together with $c^{3}$ or $c^{4}$, and therefore was at least contemporary with (if not earlier than) the operation of palatal umlaut (cf. p. 88 f.).
III. In the East Saxon dialect also contraction through the loss of intervocalic- $\chi$ - seems to have been preceded chronologically by the change $\bar{x}\left(=\bar{w}^{1}, \bar{e}^{3}\right)>\bar{e}$. This conclusion is drawn from the rareness of -ae- in the glossaries. On the other hand the operation of palatal umlaut does not seem to have preceded the change $\bar{e}>\bar{e}$; the change $\overline{e^{4}}>\bar{e}$, if indeed it took place at all, can not have been contemporaneous with the change $\bar{e}^{1}, \bar{e}^{3}>\bar{e}$, the proportion of forms with $-a e-=\bar{e}^{4}$ in the glossaries being too great to admit of such a supposition. Therefore since the proportion of forms with $-e-=\overline{\omega^{1}}, \bar{e}^{3}$ points to this change having taken place in East Saxon at about the same time as in Northumbrian, the operation of palatal umlaut is probably to be assigned to a somewhat later date here than in the latter dialect. Contraction through the loss of intervocalic $-\chi$ - seems to have been preceded by the change $c^{4}>e($ cf. p. $133 n$.). Therefore since the change $\omega^{1}, e^{3}>e$ is also known, though from the comparatively small number of cases with $-e$ - it appears to be comparatively recent, it is probable that $w^{1}, c e^{3}, e^{4}$ fell together before the change $\alpha>e$, and that this change took place after the change $\bar{\alpha}^{1}, \bar{c}^{3}>\bar{e}$. The relative chronology of these changes may therefore be summarised as follows:-

1. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Change of } \bar{x}\left(=\overline{w^{1}}, \bar{a}^{3}\right)>\bar{e} . \\ \text { Operation of palatal umlaut. }\end{array}\right.$
2. Change of $\left.c^{( }=w^{1}, w^{3}, w^{4}\right)>e$.
3. Contraction through the loss of intervocalic $-\chi$ -

East Saxon has the change $a>e$ in common with the dialect of the Psalter, though in the latter the change took place earlier and had a less extended range. The lengthening of vowels before $r+$ consonant seems to have been later in East Saxon. This dialect also in common with early Northumbrian seems to have been free from labial umlaut.
IV. Early Kentish (more strictly perhaps Court-Kentish or Mercian-Kentish) agreed with East Saxon in regard to
the change $\bar{e}^{1}, \bar{e}^{3}>\bar{e}$, the operation of palatal umlaut and the change $\alpha>e$, though in the last case the change here embraced $\alpha^{2}$ as well as $w^{1}, e^{3}, \alpha^{4}$; the change ${\overline{\omega^{2}}}^{2}>\bar{e}$ was perhaps somewhat later.
V. The dialect of Corpus-which may provisionally be called Mercian-seems to have agreed with East Saxon (against Northumbrian and the dialect of the Psalter) in the comparatively later operation of palatal umlaut- $\bar{e}^{4}$ being here preserved. On the other hand Mercian agrees with Northumbrian (against Kentish, East Saxon and the dialect of the Psalter) in being free from the change $\alpha>e$. Lastly Mercian agrees with the dialect of the Psalter (against East Saxon and Northumbrian) in the early operation of labial umlaut, though in Mercian this change, at least in the earliest period, seems to have affected only $e, i$. The chronology of the principal changes in the Mercian dialect may be briefly summarised as follows:-

1. Labial umlaut of $e, i$.
2. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Change of } \bar{e}\left(=\overline{\omega^{1}}, \bar{w}^{3}\right)>\bar{e} . \\ \text { Operation of palatal umlaut. }\end{array}\right.$
3. Contraction through the loss of intervocalic - $\chi$ -

These considerations may perhaps give us some clue to the geographical position of the dialect of the Psalter. Its affinities lie on one side with Northumbrian in regard to the date of palatal umlaut and the lengthening before $r+$ consonant; on another side with East Saxon in the change of $c>e$, though there is a difference in date and consequently in the extent to which the change is operative; lastly it agrees with Mercian in the early operation of labial umlaut, though only $e, i$ are affected thereby in the latter dialect. With Kentish and West Saxon it appears to have no common features which are not shared by one at least of the other three dialects. The dialect would seem therefore to be either East Midland (Peterborough, Ely, etc.) or East Anglian; the latter appears to me more probable, as the connection with Mercian is not very close. This conclusion however would of course require to be substantiated
by investigations into the later history of this dialect, for which I have not the necessary knowledge.

## 16. Chronology of the Earliest English SoundCHANGES.

For the period anterior to the operation of palatal umlaut (which for Northumbrian may be dated about 620 650 , cf. p. 24 f.) we have little evidence of dialectic variation within the group discussed above. Neither the change of $w^{1}>e$ in the dialect of the Psalter nor the operation of labial umlaut is likely to have taken place much before this time. West Saxon however must already have shown three important peculiarities: (1) in the effects produced by $i$-umlaut on diphthongs; (2) breaking of Germ. a before $l+$ consonant; (3) palatal diphthongisation of front vowels. One of these-the breaking of Germ. a-may also have been shared by Kentish at this time, if the restoration of $-a$ - in the early charters, etc. is to be ascribed to Mercian influence.

The following is a brief summary of the earlier soundchanges, treated chronologically. It is convenient to work backwards, beginning where the ground is safest $\dagger$. When the order in which two or more changes took place can not be definitely ascertained, these changes will be bracketed.

1. The loss of final $-u$ after long syllables (and in words of the form $\cup \sim \cup$ ) seems to be approximately contemporaneous with the operation of palatal umlaut in Northumbrian (cf. p. 67). At all events it preceded the reduction of intervocalic $-\chi$ -
2. The syncope of final $-a$ - in the first member of a compound may belong to the same period (or slightly earlier ?)

+ The chronological statements must not be taken too literally. Thus when it is said (e.g.) that the change $\bar{a}>\bar{a}$ preceded the monophthongisation of Germ. ai, this means only that when the latter change took place the older $\bar{a}$ was no longer a pure $\bar{a}$-sound, identical with the new $\bar{a}$, but that the process of fronting had already begun; it does not mean that an $\bar{x}$ - sound was then fully developed. Within a short space it is impossible to avoid stating the case somerwhat baldly.

3. The syncope of $-i$ - after long syllables precedes the loss of final $-u(1)$, e.g. $r \bar{c} c u$ (cf. p. 65).
4. The gemination of consonants before Germ. $-j$ - precedes 1, 2, 3 (cf. p. 74 ff.).
5. The beginning of $i$-umlaut precedes 3.
6. The West Saxon palatal diphthongisation of front vowels precedes 5, e.g. cy $\mathrm{y} e$ (< * čīesi).
7. The West Saxon (and Kentish) breaking of Germ. a before $l+$ consonant precedes 5 (perhaps also 4 , cf. p. 19 f.) $\dagger$.
8. The breaking before $r+$ consonant precedes 5 .
9. The change $\bar{\varnothing}$ (cf. p. 59 f.) $>\bar{o}$ precedes 5 .
10. The palatalisation of guttural consonants before front vowels precedes 6 .
11. The change $z>r$ precedes 8 , e.g. W. Sax. mearg.
12. The loss of nasals (or nasalism) before $f, p, s, \chi$ precedes $9^{+}$.
$\{$ 13. The change $\check{a} u>\check{厄} u$ precedes 10 (cf. p. 26).
13. The change $z n>n n$ precedes 11 (cf. pp. 6, 33).
(15. The breaking before $\chi$ precedes 13 (cf. p. 28).
14. The change $a>e^{1}$ precedes 10 and probably also 14.
15. The loss of final $-a$ precedes 16.
16. The loss of final $-z$, with lengthening of the vowel in accented syllables, precedes 16 and probably 17 , e.g. N. sg. $h w \bar{a}$.
17. The monophthongisation of Germ. ai precedes 17, e.g. $\bar{a}$ (: Goth. aiw).
18. The change $\bar{a}>\bar{a}^{1}$ precedes $10,18,19$.
19. The change $\bar{a}>\bar{Q}$ before nasals precedes 20 (e.g. mōna : Goth. mena) ; to the same period probably belongs the change $a>Q$ in the same position, though it can only be shown that it precedes 12, 14, 16.
[^38]It is very difficult to assign fixed dates for any of these changes. Pogatscher (P.B.B. xvirl. 465 ff.) has proved that the operation of $i$-umlaut took place after the invasion of Britain, but this is probably true of very much earlier changes. The word -caestir (W. Sax. -ceaster) in placenames shows 10,16 and was also probably acquired in Britain. The Keltic caed-(ualla etc., W. Sax. cead-) is more doubtful. Ansehis (Rav. Anon. v. 31, doubtless for *anschis) may be identical with oisc (Bede II. 5) ; if so, sound substitution ( $a$ for $Q$ ) has probably taken place, but even then the word will show 5, 9, 12. Natan-(leaga etc. Chron. 508) seems to show 19 ; for the word can not be separated from Gael. nechtan and reappears (probably in Welsh form) as naiton in Bede v. 21. The early relationships of the English and Welsh languages form a problem which requires further investigation; but, so far as the evidence goes, it seems to show that almost all the changes enumerated above took place after the occupation of Britain, and that during the first two centuries of the occupation the process of change must have been very rapid. I am aware that the dating suggested here is much later than what is usually accepted. Yet it seems to be confirmed to some extent by evidence from a different side. The earliest of the changes mentioned above, with one exception, is that of $\bar{a}>\bar{a}^{1}$. Before that is of course to be placed the so-called "West Germanic" change of $\bar{e}>\bar{\alpha}$. Since the two changes are in opposite directions, a very long period of time must have elapsed between them. Now the earliest names which show $-\bar{\alpha}-<$ Germ. $\bar{e}$ belong to the close of the second century (in Bohemia, cf. Kluge, P.G. ${ }^{2}$ p. 356), and even here the evidence is not contemporary. But even if this change took place contemporaneously in the North, the reverse change can hardly have begun before the fourth century at the earliest. It is to be observed that the older Latin loanwords consistently show the change $\bar{a}>\bar{\omega}^{1}$, e.g. Sētern-(es dacg, Lind.), strēt, nēp, cēse, strḕgl, strēl (W. Sax. S $\bar{e} t e r n-$, str $\bar{e} t, ~ n \bar{e} p, ~ c \bar{y} s e, ~ s t r \bar{c} g l) ; ~-\bar{\alpha}-$ is never preserved except before $w$ (e.g. Ep. pauua). But if the later $\bar{a}(<a i)$ had come into existence any considerable time before
the English left their earlier home, we should have expected to find Latin $\bar{a}$ preserved in some cases at least. Again, according to the chronology suggested above, the loss of final $-a$ will have taken place very early in the sixth century. In this respect English seems to agree both with Scandinavian and Frankish. The latest Urnordisch inscriptions which preserve $-a,-a R$ can hardly belong to an earlier date than this, though Wimmer has probably gone too far in assigning them to the seventh century. So also the Malberg glosses in the Lex Salica (chunna, focla etc.) can not be earlier than the last decade of the fifth century.

## 17. The position of English among the Germanic Languages.

It has been shown above (p. 164) that at the beginning of the seventh century there were practically but two English dialects in existence, the one being West Saxon, the other being common to all the districts north of the Thames. Kentish seems to have occupied an intermediate position, being probably somewhat nearer to the latter. It has further been shown (p. 165 n .), that the differences between West Saxon and the Northern group do not go very far back, probably not before the middle of the sixth century. For the first half of this century we have no evidence of dialectical differences. It remains now to be seen what features the English language had during this early period in common with the sister languages on the continent and what features were specifically and exclusively English.

It is remarkable that among the early changes enumerated on p . 165 , setting aside the dialectical peculiarities of West Saxon, all except 8 (the breaking before $r+$ consonant) and 13 (the change $\breve{a} u>\breve{c} u$ ) occur also in Frisian. On the other hand the only distinctive feature of Frisian, as opposed to English, in the earliest times seems to have been a change of $\bar{a}(<a i)>\bar{c}$, somewhat parallel to that of $a>c^{1}$. Since there is no reason for believing that the relative chronology in English and Frisian differed, it follows that at the be-
ginning of the sixth century there can have been no difference at all between the two languages.

It has frequently been held that English and Frisian are, altogether with Old Saxon, Frankish and the dialects of Upper Germany, descended from a once undivided " Urwestgermanisch" language, which formed (beside Urnordisch and Urostgermanisch) one of three offshoots of the original Germanic ("Urgermanisch") language. Now, since the earliest of the changes enumerated above, namely the change $\breve{a}>\bar{Q}$ before nasals and the change $\bar{a}>\bar{c}^{1}$, are peculiar to Anglo-Frisian, it is clear that this undivided West Germanic language must have ceased to exist before the end of the fifth century at the latest. What then were the distinctive characteristics of this language? The following changes are common to Old Saxon, Frankish, Upper German and AngloFrisian but wanting in Scandinavian:-
i. The lengthening of consonants before $j$.
ii. The change of medial and final $\delta>d$.
iii. The change of $z>r$ before $d$.
iv. The loss of final $-z$. (In High German however $r<z$ is preserved in short monosyllabic words).
v. The change $-a^{x} w w a-x>-a^{x} u w a-x$ (cf. p. 37 f.) $\dagger$.

Perhaps also the absence of syncope in the G. sg. -as, O.H.G. -es, -as and the problematic gemination in teohhian etc. are to be added. The gemination of consonants before $r, l$ can not really be compared (cf. p. 69 ff.).

Of these changes i. can certainly not belong to the period when the language was still undivided. From O.H.G. chunni etc. it appears that in this dialect gemination took place after the syncope of $-i$. Though this was not the case in English, it was nevertheless comparatively late (cf. p. 76 f.). With

[^39]regard to iii. it is probable that Germ. $z$ in general was preserved until after the change $a>c^{1}$ had taken place (cf. cern etc.). In iv. the loss of $-z$ probably preceded the loss of final $-a$, but there is no reason to suppose that $-z$ was lost earlier in unaccented than in accented syllables. Now in accented syllables the loss of $-z$ (with lengthening of the vowel) took place after the change $\bar{a}>\bar{\omega}^{1}$, as appears from $h w \bar{a}$ beside $s w \bar{e}, s w \bar{c} \dagger$. In v. the change $-a^{x} w w a^{x}->$ $-a^{x} u w a^{x}$ - seems to have taken place at a comparatively late period in Old Saxon, as appears from such forms as glau. In English also it is probable from such forms as sēa that the diphthongisation did not precede the loss of final -a. On the other hand the date of the change $\gamma>d$ seems impossible to determine $\ddagger$. There is therefore but one sound-changeand that of altogether doubtful age-which can be assigned to the "Urwestgermanisch" period. The change $z>r$ (before vowels and ;) is shared also by Scandinavian ; so also are the early changes $i>e, u>0$ before low vowels $\|, e>i$ before $i, j$, and the reduction of final $-\bar{o}>-u$. The change $\bar{e}>\bar{\alpha}$ can least of all be ascribed to the "Urwestgermanisch" period, for in Frankish the change appears to have been still incomplete in the sixth century; but by this time $\bar{a}$ had long ceased to exist in Anglo-Frisian. In the date of this change AngloFrisian seems rather to agree with Scandinavian.

The points of agreement between Anglo-Frisian and the other " West Germanic" languages must be ascribed rather to geographical proximity than to identity of origin. This is shown by two important facts: (1) Anglo-Frisian shares with Old Saxon certain features which are wanting in High
$\dagger$ swa is descended from the originally unaccented byform swă.
$\ddagger$ Is it quite certain that the English $3 \mathrm{sg} .-i \mathrm{~b}, 3 \mathrm{pl} .-a \mathrm{~b}$ and the rare 2 pl . -ab (e.g. sibidab, gebiddad) are due to the influence of Indo-Germanic é: $\begin{gathered}\text { - }\end{gathered}$ verbs? It appears to me quite possible that final - $\delta$ in unaccented syllables might have become voiceless in Anglo-Frisian (as also perhaps in Scandinavian, e.g. Stent. bariutib, and possibly in Old Saxon). In that case the change $\delta>d$ can not be assigned to the undivided period.
$\|$ From *Pextas (North. pect-) it seems probable that the change $i>e$ was in operation as late as the fourth century. Or did Anglo-Frisian share with Scandinavian a later change $i>e$ before $\chi$ ?

German, e.g. the loss of $-z$ in short monosyllables, the loss of $n$ before p, $f$ (incomplete in Old Saxon) and possibly to some slight extent the date of gemination before $j \dagger$; while in regard to the treatment of $t$ and of explosives the position of High German is quite peculiar. On the other hand features common to High German and Anglo-Frisian but absent from Old Saxon are entirely wanting. (2) Anglo-Frisian shares with Scandinavian several important changes which are unknown in the West Germanic languages, e.g. the early operation of $i$-umlaut, the operation of labial and back umlaut in English, the loss of nasals before $-s$ and the early reduction of $\chi_{\ddagger}^{\dagger}$; similar points of agreement are still more frequent in the morphology, but these need not be discussed here. Now though these common features of Anglo-Frisian and Scandinavian are of course worthless for providing identity of origin, they are yet scarcely less significant than the "West Germanic" characteristics as evidence for geographical proximity. It is true that (e.g.) the operation of $i$-umlaut in Scandinavian differs in several respects from the parallel phenomenon in Anglo-Frisian, and the difference between English and Scandinavian is perhaps still more marked in the case of labial and back umlaut; but neither of these differences is greater than the difference between AngloFrisian and West Germanic in regard to the gemination of consonants before $j$ (cf. p. 75 n .). In the latter point indeed Anglo-Frisian seems to occupy a position midway between West Germanic and Scandinavian ; it shares the gemination with the former, but in regard to the subsequent treatment of $j$ it agrees rather with Scandinavian. Lastly it may be mentioned that, so far as the chronology can be traced, Scandinavian itself seems to have undergone no distinctive changes earlier than the earliest changes of Anglo-Frisian. The earliest distinctive Scandinavian changes are the changes $\check{\tau}>\check{\ddot{e}}, \check{\bar{u}}>\check{o}$ before $\chi$ and the changes $-a^{x} w w a^{x}->-a^{x} g g w a^{x}$,

[^40]$-a^{x} j j a^{x}->-a^{x} g g j a^{x}$-. According to Noreen (Altisl. Gr. ${ }^{2}$, § 246), these last changes do not belong to the Urnordisch period; the change $\bar{u}>\bar{o}$ before $\chi$ also is not complete in the Urnordisch inscriptions (e.g. muha, Kragehul). It is probable therefore that none of the existing distinctions $\dagger$ between Scandinavian, Anglo-Frisian and West Germanic go back to a period much earlier than the beginning of the fifth century $\ddagger$.

The sound-changes of which we find evidence in the earliest English texts may therefore be divided into five series :-

1. Changes peculiar to English.
2. Changes common to English and Frisian.
3. Changes common to Anglo-Frisian and West Germanic.
4. Changes common to Anglo-Frisian (or English alone) and Scandinavian.
5. Changes common to Scandinavian, Anglo-Frisian and West Germanic.

In 2, the changes date in part from a period when English and Frisian were still undivided ; in part they have developed later. None of the changes in 3 , as I have tried to show, date from a period when these languages were still undivided. They are rather to be ascribed to geographical proximity ; so also with the changes in 4 . On the other hand several of the changes in 5 go back in all probability to a period when the three linguistic groups still formed one homogeneous whole (cf. p. 169).

+ Except probably in regard to the treatment of Germ. $\bar{e}$, where however the line of division lay within the West Germanic branch (cf. p. 169).
$\ddagger$ Hence some of the so-called Urnordisch inscriptions, e.g. those of Thorsbjaerg and Gallehus, may really be Anglo-Frisian, if they belong to the fourth century. They certainly contain no specifically Scandinavian characteristics; the preservation of (the originally accented form) ek in Gallehus is nothing remarkable when the age of the inscription is taken into account. It must however be left to historical or archaeological investigation to determine whether the population of Slesvig was Scandinavian at this period.

By the Scandinavian-Anglo-Frisian-West-Germanic period, during which the earlier changes in 5 took place, I do not mean the period which is usually known as "Gemeingermanisch." The East Germanic languages (assuming that Gothic represents in general the normal type of these languages) must have differed from the NorthernWestern group in many important characteristics long before the beginning of the fifth century. Among the earliest points of difference may be mentioned the treatment of final syllables, the change $e>i$, the preservation (at least in Gothic) of $\bar{e}$ and the absence of the change $u>0$ before low vowels $\dagger$. Those scholars who unite Gothic and Scandinavian in a Northern-Eastern group seem to me to have overlooked amongst other things the essentially different chronology of the sound-changes in the two linguistic groups.

In saying that none of the existing distinctions between Scandinavian, Anglo-Frisian and West Germanic go back to a period much before the beginning of the fifth century I do not mean that before that time dialectical differences were entirely wanting. Considering the size of the area over which these languages are (and were even at that time) distributed, this would be improbable. I mean rather that the divisions and dialects, which existed before that time, were probably different from those which appear later. The political events of the fourth and fifth centuries involved a general dislocation of the Germanic world ; new groups were formed and old differences would naturally often be obliterated. An indication of former dialectical differences is perhaps to be seen in the treatment of Germ. $\bar{e}$. But it is scarcely possible to determine the divisions of that time by philological methods. Tacitus' division of the Germans into

[^41]Ingaeuones, Istaeuones and Herminones-a division in which the East Germans are probably not included (cf. Pliny, N.H. IV. 28)-may accurately reflect the racial and consequently perhaps also the linguistic divisions of that period, but the further investigation of this question must be left to archaeologists.
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*** Owing to the nature of the papers contained in this volume, no general Index is needed. A select Index to Part I. will be found at p. 83.

## CORRIGENDA TO PART 1.

p. 23, 1. 5, for 'the source had tenere' read 'the source had tedere
p. 24 , cancel the words from 'At ill xiv 19 ' to the end of the paragraph.
$84 \% 195$

解


[^0]:    + The hypothetical Germanic sound from which these come is written $-\bar{e}$-.

[^1]:    + L.V. has ed-eed- seven times; 6 before a second member containing ${ }^{\boldsymbol{t}}$-vocalism, viz. cduini 4, eedgils 1, cedric 1 . The exception is edgyth. caduini occurs 13 times; eadgils, eadric do not occur.

[^2]:    + The metathesis of $-r$ - seems to have been repeated at various periods. Thus we find Lind. gars (twice beside frequent gers) and D. pl. grasum ; cf. Cp. graes (864).
    $\ddagger$ Cf. also Lind. berna, Ps. bernan, W.Sax. barnan with $i$-umlaut of $q$.

[^3]:    $\dagger$ Hence Sievers' explanation (P.B.B. xvirr. 412) of seoluini (L.V. 1. 305) must be wrong; it is preferable to regard seol- as simply a mistake for ceol-.
    $\ddagger$ The following explanation has now been put forward by Sievers (Gr. ${ }^{3} \S 164$ f.).

[^4]:    † Cf. Siev. § 84, where however Peohtas is wrongly given as an example of broken -i. As Bede v. 13 pect-helmo and L.V. pect-helm, pect-uald, etc. (frequent) show, the change of $i>e$ in this word, like the converse change in $<$ Wixti- *Vectis, took place before the operation of breaking.
    $\ddagger$ This example is regular only if smicar belongs to a weak verb.

[^5]:    $\dagger$ But these forms may have Germ. $e$ (: Goth. unairkns etc.).

[^6]:    + The frequent -ia- shows that this new diphthong differed from the diphthong -ea- which represents Germ. au etc., the first element here being identical no doubt with the first element of the diphthong eo, io.
    $\ddagger$ This view has now been practically abandoned by Sievers (Gr. ${ }^{3} \S 45.4$ ).
    § i.e. umlaut caused by a following labial vowel.

[^7]:    $\dagger$ The difficult problems arising from the contraction of $\bar{u}, \bar{y}$ with a following vowel are also omitted because they have no bearing on the present discussiou. Cf. Sievers § 116, 117.

[^8]:    + According to Sweet (H. E. S. § 427) the first element of the diphthong was always $a$-the change being merely graphic. But the monophthongised W. Sax. gèr, nēh etc. seem to me to point clearly to $\bar{e} a$ not $\bar{x} a$.

[^9]:    $\dagger$ There is of course another explanation possible, viz. that the second element was gradually assimilated to the first through lowering, and subsequently through depalatisation; and this theory seems to be the one favoured by Sievers (Phon. §41, a). It is obvious that this explanation also will apply in part to Germ. au-the second element being first lowered and then delabialised, but in this case the palatalisation of the first element must have preceded the latter change. Yet it seems to me more probable that the development took place as in Lithuanian according to the theory stated in the text above.

[^10]:    $\dagger$ The last two examples are referred to alu by Sweet.

[^11]:    + Possibly in smierewað, -fierran, -ie- does not represent an earlier -iu but is a late development of $-i$ - as in bier $\delta<b i r e \delta($ cf. p. 33 n .).

[^12]:    + At least there is no evidence to the contrary, though the phonetic value of some of the forms, especially in Epinal, is of course doubtful.

[^13]:    + Cosijn, Addenda p. 202 f., apparently considers it to be short, but the absence of forms with -ew- is against the supposition that the original inflexion was kept so long.
    $\ddagger$ Sievers now (Gr. ${ }^{3} \S 73.2$ ) reads trĕowes etc. and takes -ěow- to be the

[^14]:    regular representative of Germ. -ew- before vowels. I can not accept this theory as gesewen remains as before unexplained; for that it contains $-e^{2}$ ( $i$-umlaut) as Sievers suggests ( $\$ 73$. Anm. 1.) seems to me in the highest degree improbable ; gesawen does not occur at all in early texts. If Sievers' theory were right we should also expect -ěaw-.

[^15]:    $\dagger$ Sievers appears to have subsequently modified his opinion on this question, cf. P.B.B. xx. 508, note.
    $\ddagger$ Gemination of $-w$ - before $-j$ - is disregarded by Sievers $\S 226 \mathrm{ff}$. (cf. $\S$ 250 n .3 ), but there seems to be no reason for doubting that such a change

[^16]:    $\dagger$ There is some difficulty in accounting for the retention of $-w$ - in the Pres. 2, 3 sg., preterite and participle of weak verbs whose stems end in a long vowel $+-v-$, and in the Pres. $2,3 \mathrm{sg}$. of strong verbs of the same type (cf. Sievers § 174. 3). The former class is not frequent and examples of forms without $-w$ - are found at least in Northumbrian. The latter class is confined to West Saxon but is common there (cf. Cosijn, II. p. 149); -w- is usually kept, though cner occurs once. In both classes it seems probable that -vohas been restored on the analogy of those forms (Infinitive, Conjunctive, etc.) in which it was regularly preserved.

[^17]:    $\dagger$ The orthography has Southern characteristics e.g. the frequent use of $u u$ - and the occasional use of $w$ - in place of the Northern $u$ - $(=w)$. So also the glosses in this MS. (published in O.E.T. p. 180 ff.), though written considerably later than the text itself, belong to a Southern (hardly Kentish) dialect which may quite well be a later form of the same dialect which appears in the English words in the text. Plummer (Baedae Opera Historica, I. p. xciii f.) has come to a different conclusion.

[^18]:    $\dagger$ Since -aen in the participle cannot be identified with O.H.G. -an, - $c$ can only represent Idg. $\cdot e$-, which must therefore have been preserved in this position in Germanic. Originally there may have been a variation between e.g. -ana- (<-ena-) and -inu-, the latter of which may be preserved in Ep. 744 forsleginum (cf. Erf. 336 gedebin), Ep. 104 binumini, Cp. 37 binumine, 76 gebinumini.

[^19]:    $\dagger$ O.N. askr does uot prove the existence of an $a$-stem.

[^20]:    † Jellinek P.B.B. xv. 296 rejects this law without discussion. The regular form of the N.A. pl. would, he says, be *rice not ricu. Since in substantives

[^21]:    † Gemination of $-\chi$ - before -l- seems to occur in Erf. 326 thuachl, Cp. ॠuehl, cf. Lind. §uahles; so also in geohol in the English version of Bede. Now it is clear from Ep. Erf. Cp. thuelan, Ep. Erf. Cp. ste(e)li (<* bwađliōn-, ${ }^{*}$ staxlia-, cf. Kluge, Wb. $\left.{ }^{5} \mathrm{pp} .422 b, 358 a\right)$ that $-h-(<-\chi-)$ was lost at an early period in the group $-a^{x} \chi l a^{x}-$. The preservation and subsequent gemination of - $\chi$ - in *bwcađl-, * 3 eo $\chi$ l- can, so far as I can see, be explained only in the following manner. On the syncope of final $-a$ the forms would be (e.g.) N. sg. *pwaaxl, G. sg. *pwaaxlas. Now if the division of syllables was *bwea- ll , "bwrax-les (parallel to *a-kr, *ak-ras) the latter might easily undergo a transformation to *bwaa- $\chi$ las through the influence of *bwaa- $\chi$ l the contrary operation to that seen in acer. Gemination would then probably be regular. With geohol : geol- may be compared hweohl- : hweolthough here the question is complicated by the existence of forms with Germ. $-3(w)$ -

[^22]:    + Goth. midjungards (cf. middungeard in Caodmon's Hymn) offers perhaps an example of Idg. *medhim.

[^23]:    $\dagger$ This loss of final $-u$ - has of course nothing to do with the svarabhaktic -u- which arises from -lx-, e.g. in L.V. uluch-sig (2), aluch-uald, aluch-burg, aluch-stan against alch-uald (2), alch-sig. This svarabhakti is to be compared with such forms as -ualach, -berict which are frequent in the Namur MS. of Bede.

[^24]:    uoenan as woenan. From the linguistic evidence I should feel inclined to date the text not later than the first few years of the ninth century.

[^25]:    $\dagger$ The diphthong eea-in freamsum is difficult to explain. It can hardly be due to anything else than labial umlaut of $a^{5}$. A somewhat parallel case is Cp. 286 fre(o)mo beside Ep. Exf. 135 fremu (cf. p. 113). In later texts freomsum also occurs. The difference between fream- and freom- may be due to a later operation of labial umlaut in the latter case-subsequent to the change $e^{5}>e$. The cause of the labial umlaut in freamsum is perhaps to be seen in the second element (-sum-) of the compound. In that case fremu will probably be a transformation of an older ${ }^{*} f r e^{5} m i\left(<{ }^{*} f r a m i\right)$, and the labial umlaut in fre(o) mo will be due to the new case-ending. For the combination of $i$ - and labial umlaut such forms as eosol ( $\left.<{ }^{*} e^{2} s u l<{ }^{*} e^{2} s l u<{ }^{*} a s i l u\right)$ may be compared.

[^26]:    + Examples of -ia- for earlier io, eo arising from back and labial umlaut (e.g. hiabenlice, wiaralde) are not included in these statistics. The same remarks apply however here also.

[^27]:    † Cf. Ep. 508 hlaeodrindi against Erf. hleodendri, Cp. 1065 hleoprendi.
    $\ddagger$ Forms of basu and mattuc (:W. matog) are omitted from the preceding lists on account of the great difficulties which they present. Their occurrences in the glossaries are as follows:-

    | Ep. 411 baeso $=$ fenicia | Erf. beoso | Cp. 877 beosu |
    | :--- | :--- | :---: |
    | 716 bru(u)nbesu $=$ ostriger | -besu | 1469 beosu |
    | 565 mettocas $=$ lagones | mettocas |  |
    | 586 mettocas $=$ ligones | metocas | 1211 meottucas |
    | 878 mettocas $=$ rastros ligones id | metticas | 1709 mettocas |
    | 1003 maettoc $=$ tridens | mettoc | 2047 meottoc |

[^28]:    + Possibly also $-e-=e^{2}$ in the mutilated gloss 1519 olectendra $=$ palpantum. Other doubtful cases are 409 heden $=$ casla, 564 scelle $=$ concisium.

[^29]:    $\dagger$ Forms with $a$ - (for $a n-, o n-$ ), $-e$-, -oe- are likewise omitted.

[^30]:    $\dagger$ The N. sg. ${ }^{*} m \bar{x} w$ seems to have had $-w$ restored from the oblique cases and the plural. There is no reason for separating this word from O.H.G. $m e \bar{h}, \mathrm{O} . \mathrm{N}$. mór, már, since ${ }^{*} m \bar{\varnothing} w$ could no more come from *maiwi-z than from *maihwi-z. Probably the latter was the original form in all the Germanic languages, in spite of the absence of $i$-umlaut in Old Norse.

[^31]:    $\dagger$ In the last two cases there has probably been lengthening through loss of $-h$ - before $-l$-.

[^32]:    $\dagger$ The form eorisc in Ep. 795, 960 (and the corresponding glosses of Erfurt and Corpus) seems to point to a change of $a^{4}>e$ in the dialect of Archetype I. earisc occurs in later texts (cf. B. T. p. 233).

[^33]:    $\dagger$ Epinal seems to have substituted a form with $-a e-=a^{1}$ which may come regularly from *skadwa-.
    $\ddagger$ In such forms as Ep. 203 gimaengiungiae $=$ confussione, Erf. gemengiungae, Cp. 522 gemengiunge, Ep. Erf. 792 birciae = populus, Cp. 183 fraetgengian =apotasia, the $-i$ - is probably used simply to denote the palatal value of $-g-,-c$-. That it cannot be compared with O.Sax. $-i$ - from Germ. $-j$ - (after geminated consonants) is clear from its use in the last syllable of Ep. gimaengiungiae.

[^34]:    $\dagger$ These two examples are not quite safe, cf. Goth. ufar.

[^35]:    † The mistake is easy to understand, for the word had already been rendered unintelligible by the earlier mistake of $-p$ - for $-m$-.

[^36]:    $\dagger$ Palaeographists say this is impossible and assign the text to the first half of the eighth century. But the arguments enumerated above seem to me conclusive against the assumption of any date before 750. Probably one will be fairly safe in dating the text about $770-800$.

[^37]:    $\dagger$ Cf. also the occasional use of -ie- for -io- (p. 125 f.).
    $\ddagger$ The numbers refer to the dialectical characteristics of Archetype 1 . enumerated on p. 158.

[^38]:    + For the period anterior to 6,7 we have no trace of dialectical differences.
    $\ddagger$ This change may be considerably earlier.

[^39]:    $\dagger$ The treatment of the parallel group $a^{x} j j a^{x}$ in English is obscure: $a g$ : O.H.G. ei, O.N. egg; hnल्xgan: O.N. gneggja; wāg, wāh (or wăg?): O.N. veggr, O. Sax. wei; G. pl. twoega, twegea, boega, begea: O.N. tueggia, beggia, O.H.G. zweijo?; frige-dag: O.H.G. frīa, O.N. frigg; ēode: Goth. iddja, M.H.G. $g$-ie. To conclude from this scanty material that the regular development in English was $-a^{x} j j a^{x}->-a^{x} i j a^{x}$ - seems to me over-hasty.

[^40]:    $\dagger$ Such forms as N. A. sg. net wear quite an Anglo-Frisian aspect; so also with $\bar{o}$ §ar etc.
    $\ddagger$ The reduction of $\chi$ and the $i$ - umlaut of $a$ in West Germanic belong to a much later period.

[^41]:    $\dagger$ This last point is often disputed on the ground of Gotones (Tacitus), Gotar, Gotan, but these forms may show a Northern-Western sound-change; Pliny writes Gutones. At a later period Goth. $u$ seems to have developed into an $o$ - sound (whence later in unaccented syllables a) independently of its environment.

